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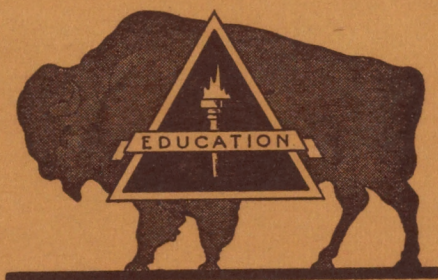


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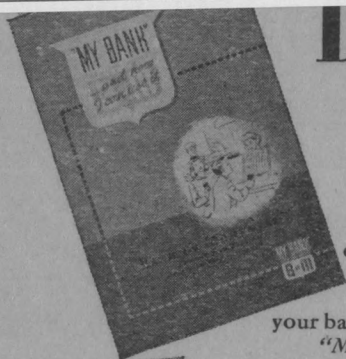
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## FACULTY OF EDUCATION

BULLETIN No. 16

DECEMBER, 1952

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# *Introduction*

D. S. WOODS  
Dean Emeritus

It is indeed a pleasure, viewing from outside rather than from the stream of fullsome activity, to have the honour and privilege of contributing the introductory note to this year's Bulletin of the Faculty of Education. To have a dream realized and yet be able to move on to other levels of modern achievement is the most gratifying experience that can come to one while passing from a condition of prescribed activity to unlimited freedom for thought and expression in the wider ramifications of public education.

To the student body of the Faculty of Education, I would say without reserve that you enter upon one of the most intriguing avenues of human activity, the guiding of the young. Surely the guiding of growth is the heart of all teaching, be it kindergarten or post-graduate at the University. Across all levels of learning, one is confronted with the challenge of the individual. Group or class instruction is a necessary and practical introduction to insight and interest, but learning by the individual is the end and upon his attitudes and achievements will depend the good life of society. Therefore, in training the young, we rely not only upon best theory and practice, but are continually required to approach the variable personality and ability of individuals in an atmosphere of experimentation and adjustment. The classroom provides unlimited opportunity for kindly and methodical observation and study of individuals, and for initiative and enterprise on the part of all who serve the larger mission of the profession.

Like the individual you teach, the teaching situation demands growth through (1) studied experience and (2) vital contacts with the rich and growing philosophical and scientific writings, and with the reports of learning and administrative experiments. These you cannot neglect from the very beginning until the end. Teachers are made through these means. Only a very few are born, if any. Some possess the necessary qualities more than others but, even they, are at the best, incomplete, so variable are the means to learning, so variable the application of those means to individual differences. Teaching now finds its base both in philosophical and in scientific methods of thinking. Mastery of both methods represents a continuous challenge to the teacher and develops that interest and wise enthusiasm which make of teaching an intriguing, professional calling.

The Faculty of Education holds a unique place in the university and in the educational endeavours of public education. "Public" as used herein involves both state and private enterprise for it is indeed noticeable how private educational enterprise has adapted and is adapting its provisions to the total effort. The university student comes to Education I as a graduate in academic study and in many instances with wide experience in social matters. But the teaching methods of the university are not necessarily the methods best adapted to any level of school teaching. The first problem of the faculty staff is one of readjusting the student teacher to modern scientific findings in methods of learning. The university has a method at the honours and graduate levels which is not only individual but applicable within another atmosphere of administration to the management of learning in the grades. Growth of the work-shop approach in the elementary, and of the library-laboratory method in the junior and senior high school, not far advanced as yet in the latter, and not too far nor too wisely in the former, will eventually mature as a unifying force across the entire educational field. The Faculty of Education is in full possession of the position from which to put this into effect eventually. But, it must operate upon the teacher-mind at all levels of learning. It has been working at this job since its inauguration and is continuing so to do under the more adequate staffing and physical provisions of today.

In closing I should like to add a word on behalf of the new Dean, N. V. Scarfe. He has brought to the faculty energy, courage, insight and a flare for publicity, the latter quite overdue owing to lean years and the need for steady if slow building up. The faculty, through force of circumstances, had to establish its worth slowly but steadily among the members of the school profession and the university fraternity. Its mission and its means to an end had to become apparent, an achievement which could not be accomplished through unnecessary friction. That day has passed, the practical worth of the institution at university level has been realized; there remains to make its value to education generally appreciated and, within the university, more widely understood. The platform, the press, the rural-extension class, and increased facilities for publicizing its research projects are means to this and should be readily available.

# EDUCATION IN MANITOBA

Opening Address, September 1952, by Hon. W. C. Miller,  
Minister of Education.

Your Dean has kindly invited me to explain to you the set-up of the Department of Education and the public schools of our Province. I am very happy to have this opportunity of getting to know you and of bringing to you the greetings of the Department, and a very hearty welcome to you as prospective teachers. We are all fully aware of the importance of the educational profession for which you are preparing yourselves. We are also aware of the undoubted fact that within that profession the most important role is that played by the classroom teacher. He, or she, is the front-line soldier of the educational ranks upon whom ultimately devolves the success of the whole administrative system. I would like to impress upon you right at the outset of your teaching careers, that all the other ranks in that system, the Department Officials, including the Inspectors of Schools, are there primarily to help you to do your work. With them are the members of this Faculty in which you have enrolled yourselves. Their primary task is also to help you, to guide you as you prepare yourselves for that work. Remember, and keep it constantly in your minds in the future, that in you is pin-pointed the whole elaborate public school system of Manitoba. The recollection of that fact may help you to understand the importance of the position for which you are preparing yourselves.

Now let me try to explain to you in broad outline the working of the educational system which we in this province have developed during the eighty-two years which have elapsed since the passing of the Manitoba Act which created the Province of Manitoba. As you are all aware from your study of Canadian history, the direction and administration of the public school systems, and indeed the general responsibility for public education at all levels, is exclusively within the jurisdiction of the provinces themselves. The British North America Act did not leave much to chance when it stated the general powers of the Parliament of Canada and the exclusive powers of the Legislatures of the Provinces. Section 93 of that Act states:

"In and for each province the legislature may exclusively make laws in relation to education . . . ."

That Section, with its subsections designed to protect the existing rights of minorities at the time of Confederation, left each province free to develop its educational system in accordance with its own needs. Speaking generally, however, the pattern which has emerged is very much the same in all provinces, and it is that pattern which I propose to discuss with you this morning.

The first question that had to be faced by each of the provinces was the fundamental issue as to whether public education was a matter which should be supported, administered and controlled by each locality, which would provide and pay for its own schools, appoint its own teachers and generally direct its own educational effort; or whether it was a matter



for the province as a whole which would assume full responsibility and exercise full control. Manitoba like each of the other provinces, and indeed like the very great majority of all education authorities operating under democratic systems of government, decided on a compromise. It decided to establish local school districts and to allocate to them and to the municipalities in which they were situated a large measure of responsibility for the local educational effort; the province as a whole would support that local effort, and would provide the regulation necessary to ensure uniformity in essential matters.

You may be interested to know that as part of its preparation to meet post-war conditions, the Government of Manitoba set up in 1944 a strong Legislative Committee to enquire into and report upon all phases of public school administration in the province. That Committee faced this fundamental issue:

"Should public education be supported and controlled by the state, or should it remain a state function, partially supported and controlled by the state and partially by the locality."

After considering the arguments on both sides, the Committee affirmed its conviction that the system of divided responsibility was best fitted to the needs of this province. In the course of your years' studies you may have the opportunity of debating this issue among yourselves. If you should do so I would advise you to refer to the Report of the Special Select Committee of the Manitoba Legislative Assembly on Education. There you will read:

"The Committee finds that the control and support of education in Manitoba should be shared by the Province and the local administrative areas. i.e., the municipalities and the school districts."

Now let us look a little more closely at the nature of the control and the sharing of the support for education in our province.

Under the provisions of one of the first Acts of the First Legislature of Manitoba, "Cap. XII — An Act to establish a system of Education in the Province", a number of school districts were set up. There were in all twenty-four of these in the "postage-stamp province" and they corresponded roughly to the various parishes that had been established by the mission churches. As settlement progressed new school districts were formed. Wherever there were ten children of school age and the settlers bestirred themselves to organize, a school district could be established. The Education Branch gave it a number, a corporate status and its blessing — the rest was up to the people. A report written by Inspector A. Herriot who was familiar with the conditions of those days says, "Buildings were secured in any possible way and no particular plan or size was demanded. Some districts borrowed a few hundred dollars and built by volunteer labour; others took out logs and built without a loan. Sod construction was used where logs and lumber couldn't be obtained. An abandoned farm shack, a spare room of a large house, or an unused granary were pressed into use. It was up to the settlers. Teachers were secured from any possible source and paid about \$30.00 a month. If a country school managed to stay open six full months in a year, it was a triumph of local enterprise . . . The government grant was 75c a day . . .

The only curriculum provided for the teachers' guidance consisted of twenty lines of fine print on the back of a register sheet under the title, 'Instructions to the Teacher' "

There you have a picture of the early days written by one who was very familiar with the beginnings of our present system of public education in Manitoba.

As you may imagine the growth of the province soon brought problems to those responsible for the administration of the schools. One of the most urgent of these arose from the growing demand for education beyond the elementary grades. Such education could be provided by the schools in the cities, in suburban municipalities, and in the larger towns and villages. It was beyond the resources of the small rural one-room schools.

To meet this problem various plans of re-organization have been adopted. One of the first was that of Consolidation of school districts which spread rapidly in the period just prior to the First World War. Under this plan a number of rural districts, usually including one village or town, joined together, pooled their resources to provide one large central school to which the pupils were transported in school vans with which many of you are undoubtedly very familiar. The movement towards Consolidation made substantial progress until just over one hundred such Consolidated School Districts were in operation. This form of re-organization undoubtedly had many advantages and it brought to a large number of rural students the benefits of attending well-equipped graded schools capable of offering the full programme of courses at that time. Difficulties of transportation slowed down this development after the First War, but it is interesting to note that recently a number of new Consolidated School Districts have been formed.

Another plan of re-organization was that adopted by the rural municipality of Miniota which brought all its scattered schools under the direction of one Municipal School Board, consolidated its rural districts and administered them all under one authority. This plan, although very successful, did not spread beyond the one rural municipality.

The Select Committee, to which I have referred earlier, recommended another form of reorganization, the School Area, under which the schools of several municipalities may be administered by one Area Board. Under this plan the original school districts are maintained and the local schools are kept open but the establishment of a large central Composite High School in the Area permits the offering of diversified courses of a technical nature as well as the General Course. The legislation which followed the Report was permissive, like all previous legislation pertaining to re-organization of school districts. If the local electorate are in favour of the change and endorse by their votes the proposal to establish such an Area, then the Department will take the necessary steps to implement their wish. Following the adoption by the Legislature of this legislation, one School Area, Dauphin-Ochre, was formed in 1947 and is now in very successful operation.

You as prospective teachers will naturally be interested in these administrative reforms, all of which have been designed to bring a larger

measure of equality of educational opportunity throughout the province.

You will be interested also, possibly more directly so, in the financial provisions made for the support of the schools. Without going into detail I may tell you that the grants made by the province to the municipalities and the school districts are based on what is called the Equalization Principle under which the amount of the provincial grant is closely related to the financial need of the local district. The sum of \$1700.00 per authorized teacher is known as the guaranteed annual support. This sum is raised in the following way:- the municipality levies a rate of 7 mills, and the difference between the amount produced by that levy and \$1700.00 is supplied by the province. The amounts required above \$1700.00 per teacher are raised by the local school district. In addition there are special grants including those for high schools and for technical classes.

The whole of the "Regulation Respecting Grants to School Districts and School Areas" is printed in the September 1952 issue of the Manitoba School Journal. I would advise you to study it carefully as you are likely to have a direct personal interest in this provision and you should understand the principles upon which it is based.

I would like to devote most of my remaining time to something which most closely concerns you — the relation of the Department of Education to the teachers of the province.

The first and most obvious of these is the question of teacher-training and certification. You will understand of course that no one may teach in the schools of Manitoba without a certificate issued by the Department. That provision has been made for obvious reasons from the earliest days, and it is one that is common to all educational jurisdictions. Some of you after receiving your training and your teacher's certificate in Manitoba may wish to teach elsewhere. You will find that although the educational authority there will probably accept your credentials as evidence of your ability to teach, it will insist upon you qualifying for its own particular certification, exactly as we do if teachers from outside come to Manitoba.

For the training of the greater part of its teachers for the elementary schools the Department maintains a Provincial Normal School which offers a one year's course to students who have obtained Grade XII standing. For its secondary school teachers the province relies mainly upon the post-graduate work offered by the University Faculty of Education. This year for the first time the Faculty courses have been opened to students with Second and Third Year University standing. This course is also available at Brandon College. A number of you present today are taking advantage of that new provision.

I think that you all understand that the successful completion of your courses either at the Normal School or in this Faculty does not automatically qualify you to teach in the schools of the Province. It does qualify you to receive from the Department an interim certificate. This certificate may be First Class Professional (A or B) or Collegiate, depending upon your academic qualifications. If you are in any doubt as to the certificate for which you have qualified I advise you to consult the



Registrar of the Department personally. He is there as I have pointed out to help you and he will be glad to do so. The Department will require you to take certain supplementary courses and to give evidence of satisfactory teaching experience before your certificate is made permanent. If this provision strikes you as being somewhat exacting, you should understand that it has been made in the best interests of public education in the province and it is to your own best interest to see to it that the qualifications required to enter the teaching profession are maintained at the highest possible level.

Now let us pass on to the time when you have entered the profession as a teacher qualified to teach in the grades set out upon your certificate. How then are you likely to be brought into contact with the Department, and what can the Department do to help you in your work?

Your first contact will probably be through your register, which you are required to keep in accordance with the regulations of the Department. Let me urge you to observe carefully those regulations and to be sure to have your half-yearly and annual reports duly completed and sent in on time. Under our present system of grants late reports can cause great inconvenience and it is to your own interest to see to it that delays in payment do not occur through negligence on your part.

You will also find awaiting you the Departmental publications in which are set out the details of the courses you will be required to teach. You will find that the subject matter of these courses is closely prescribed with particulars as to the authorized texts and recommended books of reference. If you are in any doubt as to these courses you may consult the Director of Curriculum who is another official of the Department directly charged with the responsibility of helping you in matters of this kind. You will probably find it advantageous to discuss your difficulties with the principal of your school or with the inspector.

The inspectors of schools in Manitoba are the direct representatives of the Department in their own districts. They are there to do all that they can to ensure the smooth and efficient working of the schools of their Divisions. They are willing and able not only to advise the school trustees upon matters connected with the administration of the schools but also to help the teachers in their work in the classrooms. Please do not look upon them as inquisitors sent to find things that are wrong with you and your work. They are all of them experienced teachers with a thorough and sympathetic understanding of the difficulties that may arise and a very ready willingness to do all that they can to help you to solve difficulties.

During your course of training here in the Faculty you will doubtless discuss the two new media which are contributing greatly to modern techniques of teaching — radio and the film. I hope that you will appreciate their usefulness and that in your teaching you will utilize to the fullest extent the provision which is being made by the Department in its two rapidly growing branches — the School Broadcasts Branch and the Visual Education Branch. Here again you may be sure of the fullest co-operation by members of the Departmental staff.

Had I time I would have liked to discuss with you some of the other Departmental agencies which have been developed to maintain the closest contact between the teacher and the Department. I should mention the Manitoba School Journal which we hope will continue to be a valuable means of communication not merely to announce changes in procedure but to give to all the teachers in the Province the fullest opportunity of benefitting by the thinking and the experience of leaders in the profession. We hope that you yourselves will contribute to that thinking and you may be sure that the Journal will gladly receive what you may have to offer for its columns. I should mention, too, the Departmental Libraries both the Reference and Open-Shelf libraries in the Building and the rapidly developing Manitoba Library Service which is housed at present in the Text Book Bureau building. Some of you may be interested, too, in the work of the Correspondence Branch. In all cases let me advise you not to hesitate to approach the Department for advice. You may be sure of the ready co-operation of all its branches.

I think I should say something before I close of the provision that has been made to ensure adequate retirement allowances for teachers who have given long and faithful service or who are compelled through physical disability to retire from active teaching. This service although supported by the province and the local school districts is not a branch of the Department. It is administered by a Board consisting of representatives of all the interested parties. Under the Teachers' Retirement Allowances Act which came into operation on July 1st 1948 each teacher contributes 5% of his salary to the Fund; the Province and the local school districts contribute a fixed amount per teacher. On retirement through age or disability the teacher is entitled to an allowance consisting of a pension based on years of service and an annuity based on his own contributions. If a teacher should withdraw from teaching after three years of service his contributions to the fund will be refunded. The pension part of the allowance is provided by the public contributions. At the last Session of the Legislature, these contributions from the Province and the local trustee boards were raised to an annual joint total of \$60.00 per teacher. At the same time certain inequalities in the original Act were rectified.

The T.R.A.A. covers every teacher in the Province except those in Winnipeg School District No. 1 which has its own scheme to which the Government contributes on the same basis as that adopted for the provincial system. You as teachers should make yourselves conversant with the Act which has been designed to help increase the stability of the teaching profession in the province.

I hope I have not taken too much of your time in my endeavours to outline for you the conditions of the service for which you are preparing yourselves. Let me impress upon you once more that the Department welcomes you to that service and will do all that it can to render assistance to you in the important work you are undertaking. You may be sure of one thing — we all wish you well!

# The Educational Aims of Charles Peirce

## A Report on the Findings of a Dissertation

GEORGE S. MACCIA

Professor of Education

Since Charles S. Peirce is the acknowledged founder of American Pragmatism, an analysis of his thought should be of interest to students of education.

According to Peirce the primary aim of man's activities, both individual and social, is the attainment of the summum bonum. This end is not a subjective ideal, but an objective goal which is, in the long run, obtainable, and which becomes actual only in the ultimate rationalization of the universe. Since man's highest nature is reasonable thought, the conformity of man's thought to the ultimate, objective, external thought is the goal most fitting for man. Precisely, then, the highest goal of man is truth. This does not mean that the truth man seeks can be known with absolute certainty through the pronouncement of any authority or the findings of any method of inquiry. Neither the experimental method nor the pragmatic maxim can provide actual present certitude. Revelation can be no more certain than science. We can never be certain that what is revealed has been truly inspired, for the test of the validity of inspiration depends upon reason. Furthermore, truths which rest upon inspiration are somewhat incomprehensible in nature. All propositions in philosophy and hypotheses in science must be held tentatively, and be abandoned in the light of new fact. Thus, in order that man obtain his end, thought must grow and develop. Only in this way can man, through and with the continuous evolution of social thinking, reach the truth. Any educational aim for man must be in keeping with his nature, his end, and the structure of the universe. Since man is potentially rational, his end truth, and the universe psychic in character the growth of reason is a primary aim of education.

In his discussion of the application of reason for the fixation of belief, Peirce rejects all methods of inquiry which are not conducted in the spirit of scientific investigation. The only motive stimulating inquiry should be an intense desire for learning the truth. Consequently, education should also have as an objective the stimulation of an interest in the inquiry into truth for truth's sake.

No one can develop the single-mindedness of interest necessary for the discovery of truth unless he has self-control. Self-control is not only essential in inquiry, it is equally important in conduct. Therefore, education should seek to foster and develop self-control. Such control cannot come about through discussion, for self-control is volitional in character. Thus, the school environment should be such that the experience which makes self-control necessary is present. The desire for truth should be controlled by the student so that he conducts his inquiry into truth on principles which are free from utilitarian motives such as personal gain. It should assume the character of volition (will to learn).



The reasoning process must be developed through "ones eyes". That is to say, educators should avoid teaching the students the manipulating of words and fancies to the neglect of manipulation of real things. All knowing starts in the senses, and inferences as to the characters of the objects can only come by experiencing them. Since experience is the "forcible modification of our ways of thinking" by means of "the brutal inroads of ideas from without", education should provide for the student's learning through experiencing the actual external world of objects and events.

The importance of experience in learning is strengthened through a corollary aim of education which is communication. The social character of reality in Peirce's thinking makes communication a vital outcome of education. The communication he refers to is communication by means of signs. Such communication can occur only within a universe held in common through common experience.

Peirce, in his emphasis on the reality of experience does not mean to belittle the importance of imagination in learning. The inferring of images and the application of processes related to imagination mark the difference between stagnancy and progress in the practical matters of invention and scientific genius. Indeed, from a study of Peirce's epistemology, it is evident that imagination forms a key to all knowing when the vagaries of imagination are tested in experience. Thus, education must aim to foster the development of the imagining processes.

Further examination of the nature of experience has shown that experience is only known as past. In whatever way percepts themselves are experienced they are not known as they are experienced. Perception occurs instantaneously. The object acts, the knower reacts. Then, the percept is gone. Any attempt to analyze the items occurring in perception must occupy time, for in this process of analysis there is effort. The effort consists in the attempt to recall and preserve the percept as experienced. The original percept is irretrievably lost. Therefore, direct and immediate knowledge of the external is instantaneous and vague at best. What is known is only the memory of the percept. Therefore, education must foster the development of the memorial process.

According to Peirce the sense of learning is the quintessence of reason. It has its psychological basis in the formation of habits. Obviously, since the highest nature of man is reasonable thought, the development of the physiological bases of learning is fundamental. Habits of reasoning and habits of conduct must be the goal of good teaching, but in so doing the educator must not fall into the error of the medieval schoolman. The teacher must not hit upon a method, habituate it and consider learning complete.

Good habits of conduct as well as good habits of thought are requisite for the student desirous of knowing truth. Unless he is honest and sincere with himself, he cannot maintain the singleminded interest necessary in the process of seeking truth.

Educational institutions must provide the environment conducive to learning, and characterized by the spirit of diligent inquiry. The facilities of these institutions should be such that the perceptive and rational

abilities of the student may obtain the maximum development. By this means, some of the causes of the lack of reasoning ability would be removed, and there would be a more rapid rise of man from the embryonic form of rationality which characterizes him now, to the rational station which is his destiny.

Peirce distinguishes between the theoretical inquiry "whose purpose is simply and solely knowledge of God's truth", and the practical whose purpose is "for the uses of life". That a separation between education for theory and education for practice is requisite, can be ascertained from Peirce's statements concerning science as an instrument for a practical end. "... the real character of science is destroyed as soon as it is made an adjunct to conduct; and especially all progress in the inductive sciences is brought to a standstill."

The law to which conscience adheres belongs to the subconscious man. It resides in "that part of the soul which is hardly distinct in different individuals, a sort of community-consciousness, or public spirit, not absolutely one and the same in different citizens, and yet not by any means independent of them". It is clear that the aims of education for inquiry which seek the *summum bonum* in thought, and the aims of education for conduct which seek the *summum bonum* in action are different, and rest on different principles. At least, this is true in the present stage of evolved reason. Ethical aims, then, rest upon instinct (1) or social conscience rather than reason.

The investigation of the nature of ethical aims must not rest here. To do so would be to miss the significance of an emphasis on conduct which is really social not individual in character. Peirce reasons that individual, particular limited goals are of little value, for all individual things must come to nothing. They must decay or die. Thus, aims which are not futile must embrace that which continues and endures beyond the individual. "He, who would not sacrifice his own soul to save the whole world, is as it seems to me illogical in all his inferences collectively." This quotation supplies the clue to Peirce's great ethical norm which is love. It is not the love of self but the love of one's neighbor which should guide man's conduct. Thus, a second primary aim of all education is to bring about the love of one's neighbor. This ideal must be practiced. Since the student can only learn through experience, he must experience conduct which is conducive to the ethical aim. The love of one's neighbor extends beyond the social graces and courtesies. The teacher, for example, must, at least, be helpful. He must understand the problems of the student in order to guide him out of logical difficulties encountered. The fulfilment of the ethical objective of education lends itself directly to the accomplishment of the intellectual objectives of education, for "... in induction a habit of probity is needed for success: a trickster is sure to play the confidence game on himself".

The specification of ethical aims must not be confused by deriving them from theoretical findings of science. Conduct should follow the conscience of the race. Educational aims of conduct must not hurriedly follow a pattern indicated by theoretical inquiry. Any man who would

<sup>1</sup> Instinct is defined by Peirce as a disposition which is due to inheritance or infantile training and tradition or both. (Peirce, *Collected Papers*, Hartshorne and Weiss eds. Harvard University Press, Cambridge.) II. 170.

precipitantly change his code of morals on the findings of theoretical inquiry would be unwise.

The general aims of education derived from Peirce's writings as developed in this report, may be listed as follows:

- (1) Education should bring about the growth and development of reason.
- (2) Education should stimulate self-interest in discovering truth for truth's sake.
- (3) Education should foster and develop self control.
- (4) Education should provide the experiences necessary for active learning.
- (5) Education should develop the concepts and techniques necessary for the communication of ideas.
- (6) Education should develop imagination which is rooted in experience.
- (7) Education should develop the ability to recall past experience.
- (8) Education should develop good habits of reasoning and conduct.
- (9) The educational environment should be conducive to the development of the perceptive and rational abilities of the student.
- (10) Education should bring about brotherly love and moral conduct.

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# How to Make Arithmetic Meaningful in the Junior High School

HARRY L. STEIN

Professor of Educational Psychology

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Teachers of Mathematics in Junior High Schools have an excellent opportunity to perform a service for students and, at the same time, to help eradicate a situation about which, justifiably or not, high school teachers complain so bitterly. The complaint is often heard from teachers of high school mathematics that students come to them from the junior high school lacking the skills and understandings of arithmetic computation. These high school teachers assert that students of upper secondary school mathematics are inhibited in their thinking about mathematical processes because they have to give too much attention to basic tools which should have been mastered much earlier. It is the purpose of this article to show that the junior high school teacher, by using a meaningful approach can help students to improve their computational skills and to re-orient their thinking about arithmetic processes by (a) clarifying anew the nature of the number system, and (b) teaching the rationale of the arithmetic processes as a basis for review and practice.

To what extent junior high school pupils are dependent upon rote memory of the algorithms for the fundamental operations is not known. It is known, however, that at each level of learning there must be a re-teaching of the processes to a considerable number of pupils who have forgotten the algorithms and have not the fundamental knowledge to reconstruct them. Much of the reteaching as it was with the original teaching and learning, utilizes memoriter methods of reacquiring the algorithms. Teachers just show them how to do it again, and hope that this time, it will stick.

## 2. WHY MAKE ARITHMETIC MEANINGFUL?

A meaningful approach in the teaching of arithmetic at the junior high school level to children who have not had the benefit of instruction of this type is most desirable for a number of reasons. In the first place, it is altogether likely that increased comprehension of the number system and of the processes will lead to increased facility and accuracy. In such operations as long division involving decimals, the manipulation of the fractions, and the solution of problems involving percentages, an understanding of the number system should lead to greater ease in making decisions as to where to place the decimal point, in deciding whether the result should be an increase or a decrease in original values, and in checking results for reasonableness. Many students are unable to judge the accuracy of an answer to a problem because of a lack of comprehension of number relationships.

In the second place, understanding may be a motivating factor in learning. It is distinctly possible that many children who are bored by,

and who become disinterested in, routine operations which they do not fully comprehend, may be spurred on to greater efforts when what they are doing is meaningful to them. Routine, repetitive examples have a peculiarly deadening effect upon many children, causing them to deteriorate in speed and accuracy with practice, rather than to improve. Placing the routine operations in meaningful social settings may serve to alleviate some of the boredom resulting from blind repetition of the operations in the abstract. Much may be gained, too, from the richness of the social settings.

In the third place, understanding may give the student a feeling of power to attack new problems without fear of the consequences of not understanding his tools or knowing how they operate under various conditions. Many students tremble when they face the task of solving fractional equations in algebra because they do not understand the commutative, associative and distributive laws of elementary arithmetic, and the laws upon which operations with fractions depend.

Fourthly, understanding should enable the student to diagnose any errors in his operations. If the student has been taught to estimate his answers and to understand the rationale of the fundamental operations, he should be able to check his work more carefully and to find out more easily where and why he has made errors in his computation. If his fractions turn out larger or smaller than he expects, understanding will help him find out why. If his decimal point appears to be in the wrong place, he has a means of investigating the situation.

### **3. HOW TO MAKE ARITHMETIC MEANINGFUL**

Having considered some of the reasons for making arithmetic meaningful we should now examine some of the methods and techniques for achieving this objective. We should remember, of course, that we are considering pupils at the junior high school level, and that they have a considerable background of useful number experience.

First, it is possible in the junior high school to teach the rationale of the fundamental operations and the algorithms connected with these operations. Then, the junior high school teacher has an opportunity to extend comprehension of number through the mathematical phase of arithmetic. Particularly, the processes of subtraction, multiplication, and division of whole numbers can be rationalized. More extensive checking procedures can be developed and explained. The processes with fractions and decimals can be explained in the light of the operational principles and generalization. What can and cannot be done with fractions and decimals can be examined on a much higher mathematical level than can be reached in the elementary school. Finally, the drabness of repetitive review and drill can be removed by treating the situation as a basis for new discovery on the part of the pupils. Experimental and co-operative techniques can be utilized in developing the new insights into the fundamental operations with all kinds of numbers.

Secondly, arithmetic can be made meaningful in the junior high school by utilizing concrete situations and by moving gradually from the concrete to the abstract and symbolic. It should not be assumed that be-

cause children have reached the age of twelve and thirteen, and have been using arithmetic in the abstract for a couple of years in the upper elementary grades, they are beyond the level where concrete materials are useful in the teaching process. It is just as reasonable for junior high school pupils to use markers, pegs, or an abacus to gain insight into the meaning of the operations as it is for them to study plants and animals objectively rather than from pictures in a book. Junior high school teachers should not consider it beneath their dignity to utilize concrete materials to develop abstract processes.

Thirdly, arithmetic can be made meaningful at the junior high school level, as at any other level by introducing each new concept through the medium of a real problem within the range of comprehension and experience of the pupils. In the junior high school enough real situations involving number and quantitative concepts in general arise in all areas of the curriculum to take care of the needs of arithmetic so that there is little need to utilize artificial and unreal problem situations. The motivating effect of the reality in the situation should overcome any inherent difficulties in the problem.

A fourth factor in making arithmetic meaningful is the recognition of the principle of individual differences and allowing pupils to proceed at their own rate. It should be remembered that insights and understandings will occur when conditions are right and when the pupil is ready. Forcing learning of rote methods merely to produce results without understanding may well cause loss of interest, and prevent individuals from striving for the insights necessary to produce successful achievement.

Finally, understanding may be furthered by stimulating interest in arithmetic and mathematics through historical anecdotes, simple puzzles and other recreations. Challenge is basic to interest, and successfully meeting a challenge is a spur to further interest and further effort.

#### **4. WHAT ARITHMETIC CAN WE MAKE MEANINGFUL?**

The opening lessons of grade VII arithmetic are usually concerned with a review of the fundamental processes. Here, then, is a splendid opportunity to stimulate and motivate junior high school pupils in the study of arithmetic. They are fairly mature; they have had considerable experience and practice with number; they will appreciate an introduction to some of the finer aspects of the subject, and, at the same time, they will acquire insights that will be of inestimable value to them in the comprehension of the new concepts they will learn in the junior high school.

There are not many new concepts to learn in grade VII as far as mathematical phase is concerned. In the main, they are: (a) Division by a three figure number; (b) Division by a decimal fraction; (c) Finding a percent of a number; (d) Finding what percent one number is of another; (e) Finding areas of certain figures; (f) Beginning the informal geometry of Shape.

In grade VIII the new processes to be taught are: (a) Finding a number when a percent of it is given; (b) Finding the volume of certain solids, (c) Extension of the informal geometry of size, shape and position; (d) In-

direct measurement by scale drawing; (e) Ratio; (f) Square root; (g) Simple equations and signed numbers.

In grade IX there are no new concepts to be taught as far as the mathematical phase of arithmetic is concerned.

What better opportunity is there, then, to open the junior high school period of arithmetic with a thorough-going review (or, in some cases, a new presentation) of our number system and its notation.

Here, in outline form, are some of the ideas that may be presented and discussed.

- (i) The origin of some of our number symbols, e.g.

	=	≡	+	$\overline{\text{I}}$
1	2	3	4	5

(ii) Our number system and its decimal notation. Our system is the Hindu-Arabic system of notation. It requires only ten symbols, nine digits and a zero. By means of these ten characters it can express the largest and the smallest integers and fractions. It does so by using the additive principle of place value, utilizing zero as a place holding device.

(iii) Many number concepts which may have been ill-understood or not understood at all in the earlier grades can, at this level, be relatively easily cleared up. Among these concepts are cardinal and ordinal numerals, abstract and concrete numbers, the meanings of fractions and the rules and principles for operating with them, and, for some of the more advanced pupils, such concepts as complex numbers and square root may be discussed.

(iv) The rationale of the fundamental operations may be dealt with very thoroughly in these grades. In addition, the laws of commutation and association can be discussed, along with the rules of "likeness" and "compensation". In subtraction, the notion that it is the reverse of addition can be taught with meaning, and the terminology minuend, subtrahend, and difference can be explained fully. Other methods of subtraction than the "take-away borrowing" method can be explained as a matter of interest. Multiplications of whole numbers can be taught as repeated addition, while division of whole numbers can be thought of as repeated subtraction. It is much easier to teach the rationale of the division algorithm at this grade level than at any earlier grade.

(v) The rationale of the fundamental operations with fractions of all kinds can be dealt with in such a way that meaning and comprehension result. Certainly high school teachers will be grateful for any "fixing" of fraction skills needed in upper level mathematical manipulation.

(vi) The rationale of short methods of computation also finds a place at the junior high school level. Short methods of multiplying by 11, of dividing by 25, of multiplying and dividing by powers of ten, etc. all make fascinating and profitable lessons.



The teacher of junior high school mathematics can, then, render a genuine service to his pupils and to the teachers of secondary mathematics by doing his utmost to develop the mathematical phase of arithmetic meaningfully.

The following bibliography will be found very helpful to teachers of arithmetic at all grade levels:

1. Brueckner, L. J., and Grossnickle, F. E., How to make Arithmetic Meaningful. Philadelphia: The John C. Winston Co., 1947.
2. Buckingham, B. K., Elementary Arithmetic; Its Meaning and Practice. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1947.
3. Hickerson, J. Allen, Guiding Children's Arithmetic Experiences. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952.
4. Stokes, C. Newton, Teaching the Meanings of Arithmetic. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1951.

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# The Teaching of Canadian History in Manitoba

JOSEPH KATZ

Professor of Education.

## THE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAMME.

The programme of studies for the Province of Manitoba schools outlines the course requirements for the teaching of Canadian history from Grades IV through XII. Grade IV, *Life in Manitoba* is given some attention along with *Ways of Living in Many Lands*. In Grade V emphasis is placed on the development of Canada as a part of the larger study of *Early Times in America*. Here, units are concerned with *Early Explorations*, *Life in New France*, *Life in Eastern Canada*, *New Settlements in the West*, *Government in Canada*, and the like. In Grade VI the geography of the Americas is dealt with, particular attention being called to the geography of Canada. Here are to be found units dealing with *Agriculture*, *Mining*, *Fishing*, *Manufacturing*, *Transportation* — in effect, the treatment of modern Canada. In Grade VII the text prescribed is *The Builders of the Old World*; in Grade VIII, *the Story of the English Speaking Nations*; and in Grade IX, *The Story of Nations*.

In Grade X, *Social Studies I* consists of the study of geography, with, it is hoped, particular attention being paid to Canada. *Social Studies II* requires the study of Canadian history, for which course several texts may be used: "*Building the Canadian Nation*" by Brown; "*Canada — A Nation*" by Chafe and Lower; and, "*The Canadian Pageant*" by Reeve and MacFarlane. In Grade XII, three texts are suggested to deal with *Modern Civilization*, any one of which is considered suitable: "*A Survey of European Civilization*" by Ferguson and Bruun; "*History of Civilization*" by Beard; and "*Modern Europe*" by New and Trotter.

This brief review of the Social Studies programme for Manitoba Schools points out the fact that Canadian history is approached spirally through the grades and receives only incidental treatment in some of the grades. It is evident, too, that information about Canada is being provided at several points in the course of study. Nevertheless, many students from time to time indicate that they do not like history; the marks many of them make on examination papers impress the fact of the first statement; and, there is general recognition of the fact that their further interest in history and things historical is quite low.

## THE PROBLEM.

In a recent investigation the general problem of why many students do not like history was specifically framed to read, "Why do students not like Canadian history?" This question was then interpreted to read specifically: 1. What topics of Canadian history are being emphasized by teachers of Canadian history? 2. What methods are being used by these teachers of Canadian history? 3. How do content and method appear to help make possible the achievement of the aims of teaching of history? 4. What training in teaching of history, and in history itself, do teachers of history report?

The assumptions implicit in this organization of the study are that student reaction to the study of Canadian history is directly associated with the course of study requirements, and with the way in which the materials of study are organized and presented to the students. It is assumed, further, that if evidence can be found that the organization and presentation of materials of history is of such an order as to obstruct the aims of the course of study, then a basis can be provided for altering these conditions.

## DESIGN OF THE INVESTIGATION.

The present report, which is part of a larger study of the teaching of Canadian history in the public schools of Canada, presents the findings pertinent to Manitoba.

A questionnaire made up of five parts was prepared and mailed to over 100 urban and rural teachers of Canadian history in Manitoba. The first part sought information of a general nature which would identify the teacher and the school situation. The second part sought information as to the academic and professional training of the teacher adequate in scope to identify specific training for teaching the social studies, particularly history. The third part sought information having to do with method, identifying such things as the use of excursions, novels, magazines, dramatics, and so forth. The fourth part of the questionnaire was designed to discover the viewpoint of the teacher through questions dealing with objectives, observations, notes, critical thinking, and the like. The fifth and last part submitted 81 topics of Canadian history which were to be marked so as to indicate the number of periods devoted to each topic.

## TEACHER TRAINING.

Thirty-seven Manitoba teachers, 22 male and 15 female answered the questionnaire. There were 11 urban responses, and 26 rural, with an average teaching experience of 15 years, and an average experience of 14 years teaching history.

TABLE I  
ACADEMIC AND PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF TEACHERS

SUBJECT OF STUDY	Number of Teachers N-37	Per Cent Teachers	Total No. Lecture Hours	Average No. Hours
Canadian history.....	20	54	1327	66
British history.....	16	43	1370	86
American history.....	11	30	714	65
World history.....	21	57	1783	85
Economics.....	16	43	1641	103
Geography.....	1	—	60	—
Political Science.....	4	11	404	101
Sociology.....	13	35	944	73
Anthropology.....	1	—	30	—
History method.....	12	32	511	43
Geography method.....	4	11	154	39
S. Studies method.....	9	24	291	32

A study of Table I is revealing of the academic and professional training of teachers of Canadian history in Manitoba. Though the findings are based on the responses of 37 teachers, they are nevertheless a specific sample of the teaching population who had an opportunity to review their training and to report it. Only 54 percent of those teaching Canadian history reported studying Canadian history as part of their University academic program, and these 54 percent had an average of 66 lecture hours. World history was studied by 43 percent for an average of 86 hours, while American history was studied by 30 percent for an average of 65 hours. The study of geography, political science, and sociology are extremely low in terms of background training.

If it may be reasonably assumed that the teacher of Canadian history ought to have had some academic training in that field at college level, then one is very much concerned with the kind of teaching of Canadian history being done by at least 46 percent of teachers of Canadian history in Manitoba. If it is held, further, that no history is possible of reasonable interpretation unless a knowledge of the principles of other social sciences is present, one may again be reasonably concerned about the kind of teaching possible.

Significant, too, is the fact that only 32 percent of teachers reporting had had an average of 43 hours of methods in the teaching of history. The number having had methods in the teaching of geography is significantly lower. Though native ingenuity may be able to improvise method in a particular field, it does mean that the process of trial and error is being carried on at the expense of the students. One of the most important functions of courses in methods is that of reducing needless experimentations at the expense of the province and of the students.

It would appear from a close study of Table 1, that there is a need for a more careful outlining of the course of study in the teaching of Canadian history. The present organization assumes that those teaching Canadian history are well enough acquainted with its content and its method to be able to organize for adequate learning in this field, but the evidence of the academic and professional background training of teachers of Canadian history questions the validity of this assumption.

**Method.** Though method in itself may not be a significant criterion of the achievement of the aims of the teaching of history, method when considered together with all the other factors may be indeed valuable as a criterion of what is happening in the classroom. Table II shows several of the methods used by teachers of Canadian history. As will be seen these figures are to some extent revealing of the atmosphere within which history is taught.



TABLE II

## METHODS USED BY TEACHERS IN CANADIAN HISTORY

METHOD	Number of Teachers Reporting N-37	Per Cent of Teachers Reporting
Text only.....	7	20
Time charts.....	25	70
Newspapers.....	32	90
Television.....	—	—
Excursions.....	2	10
Debates.....	11	30
Maps.....	36	97
Workbooks.....	9	25
Magazines.....	28	80
Committees.....	2	10
Dramatics.....	5	15
Forums.....	4	13
Models.....	3	11
Novels.....	18	50
Radio.....	19	55
Slide films.....	8	22
Comic Classics.....	2	10
Motion pictures.....	20	60

Table II reveals that maps, newspapers, magazines, and time charts play a great part in all methods used. Of a lesser order, but still significant are motion pictures, radio, novels, and workbooks. It is particularly important to note that the oral techniques such as debates, committees, and forums receive very little attention. Dramatics, comic classics, models and excursions are used very infrequently. If the thesis is taken that history to come alive in the classroom must be lifted from the printed page, then the evidence revealed in Table II points to the fact that much of history is left in the past in print, and is not brought alive in the classroom by way of discussion and role-playing to the extent that it ought to be.

Though it may be true that history appears in the classroom by way of maps, and time-charts, and texts, and dates, it is not true that method must leave them there. It is the function of the teacher of history in school to identify present and past in such a manner that the student not only understands how the present has come to be what it is, but in some measure is made to feel the historic forces that play around him in day to day activities.

**Viewpoints.** Several questions were asked of teachers designed to obtain a general idea of their approach to the subject of teaching Canadian history. Table III lists the questions asked and the responses elicited.

TABLE III  
VIEWPOINTS OF TEACHERS

QUESTIONS	Number of Teachers Answering Yes	Per Cent of Teachers Answering Yes
1. Do you like teaching history?.....	37	100
2. Do you approve of the course of study in history as at present organized?.....	23	62
3. Do you correlate history with other subjects in your teaching?.....	35	90
4. Do you provide your students with notes?.....	13	40
5. Do you discuss methods with your students?.....	19	50
6. Do you discuss objectives with your classes?.....	32	87
7. Do you use written tests frequently in the course of your teaching?.....	31	84
8. Do you record observations of students' social relationship in school?.....	11	30
9. Do you emphasize critical thinking at any time in your history course?.....	35	90
10. Do you relate current events to historical backgrounds?.....	36	97

It would appear from the responses shown in Table III that teachers of Canadian history like teaching the subject, that they relate current events to historic backgrounds, and that they correlate materials of history with other subject matter. The report that they discuss objectives with their students, and at the same time indicate a measure of dissatisfaction with the course raises an important question of viewpoint. How much of this dissatisfaction is being conveyed to students? The clearest evidence that the teaching of history is considered something apart from the behavior of the student is shown by item 8 when only 30 percent of teachers responded positively.

The responses shown in Table III point to the fact that the teachers of Canadian history are making efforts to bring the subject into line with the dynamics obtaining in other fields such as mathematics and English. At the same time the particular role of the teaching of history in the course of study is being obscured by practices which are better suited to other areas in the course of study. One may conclude that the teachers of Canadian history are interested in doing a good job, but that more guidance, if not more background, is required for it.

### CANADIAN HISTORY TOPICS EMPHASIZED.

In this part of the report only several of the 81 topics dealt with in the study will be considered at this time. In Grades 5-9, both inclusive, a total of 2721 minutes per year was the average amount of time reported as being devoted to the teaching of Canadian history. On the basis of a 30 minute period for this section it would mean approximately 2 periods a week for this subject. In the senior high school, however, the total number of minutes indicated was 5737, which on the basis of 40 minute periods would mean approximately 4 periods per week.

In the elementary school the greatest emphasis is placed on the geography of Canada, and on early Canadian history. The fact that such topics as Bishop, Governor, and Intendant were dealt with in the elementary school would suggest there is still too great a political bias in the history taught at this level. A rather significantly low response was revealed in answer to the treatment of the Native Peoples of Canada. It would appear that in Grades V and VI there would be ample material of a meaningful and colorful nature dealing with the customs of the people who first inhabited Canada, yet it surely is not being used. A great deal of attention is paid to the study of New France, which, so far as the students of Manitoba are concerned may be Canadian history, but the practice raises the question: Though this practice may be good, need it be carried on to the exclusion of other equally dramatic areas of Canada's story?

The emphasis placed on the topics of history in the elementary grades suggests that the ideas of conflict and of government are being over emphasized at this level. Another aspect of the study suggests that only a few topics are dealt with in any way adequately, and that, as a consequence, students do not get any consistent story of Canada. Though there may be some attention given to most of the topics only two areas of social study are dealt with in the elementary school to an extent that suggests adequate informational coverage — the geography of Canada, and the story of its explorers.

An analysis of the topics emphasized suggests that the students' concern with the ways of life of the people in Canada, and of how those ways of life have come to be what they are is not being met with the kind of attention deserved. If the function of history in the elementary grades is to socialize the student by having him understand the present in the light of the past much is being lost.

In the intermediate and senior high schools the teaching of Canadian history is holding rigidly to exploration and government, emphasizing political and military aspects. By far the most thorough treatment is given to the period prior to 1914, but topics having to do with history up to and including World War II are given considerable attention. The most significant omissions are the following topics: Native Peoples of Canada, Manitoba Schools Question, International and Joint High Commissions, Ottawa Agreements, Ogdensburg Agreement, League of Nations, Labor Unions, Population Trends in Canada, Rowell-Sirois Report, Canadian Issues of Today, Scientific Knowledge in Canada, Food, Shelter, and Clothing, Urban-Rural Development, Canadian Personalities, Defence, and Territorial Development.

The fact that these topics are not being given attention bespeaks the fact that much of the history of Canada which students are getting in school is in the form of items of information. Information alone, however interesting it may be, cannot justify to the student the place of history on the program of studies if it does not result in the kind of knowledge applicable by him to today's world. The world the student lives in is here and now: it is a world peopled by men and women who are active and engaged in a society. This social framework must be the concrete basis to which much that is abstract in history is related. The

fact that the B.N.A. act was formulated over a period of time, and required many significant political steps to implement it, can for the student mean nothing more than an abstract document unless and until the play of personality upon personality is dealt with in a specific set of social, political, and economic circumstances each of which is real and concrete. The historian's history is not for the student in the secondary school. It is for the scholar of history.

**The Findings.** From the data which has been examined some specific conclusions are clear: 1. There has been a too sharp separation of geography and history at the elementary and intermediate levels of the school. 2. Teachers of Canadian history require more guidance for the teaching of Canadian history for developing desirable social attitudes. 3. Teachers appear to want to interpret Canadian history in this way, but are apparently limited by (a) the very mass of the course of study (b) the prescriptions of the course of study, and (c) a lack of variety of methods applicable. 4. Teachers of Canadian history have attempted to treat history in school as if it were as objective a study as science or mathematics.

Several implications follow from these conclusions which are pertinent to a reexamination of and the reorganization for the teaching of Canadian history. First, is the obvious fact that most Canadian history and geography is being treated separately at the scholar's level. This means that history and geography of a factual and abstract kind is being retailed in the school at all levels without considering the peculiar nature function and purpose of history and geography together. The story of Canada, is a real and significant story which took place in social settings not unlike those which surround the student. This is concrete and real. This the student can understand and appreciate. Instead, he is asked to move from abstraction to abstraction in a very short space of time, and to try and see how the abstract past explains the very concrete present.

A second, and equally important, implication is that too much is asked of teachers and students in Canadian history in too short a time. There appears to be too little time in which to give adequate treatment to the significant aspects of the Canadian story to students. What in fact does result is a veritable hodgepodge of Canadian dates and events whose significance is taken for granted, but whose real pertinence in the present life of the student is neither understood nor felt. History is more than a cause and effect articulation of events. History is the story of what has happened, and this story, to be significant to the student, must be told so that it helps explain the complex present. This means that a careful selection must be made of those materials of Canadian history which explain the present society in which the student finds himself. This means, further, that not more time is required for the course of study as a whole, but that what is required is a better use of the time available.

Lastly, it appears to be essential to have a clear statement as to what constitutes the role of the social studies in the school. A statement as to the objectives of the course, a spelling out of these objectives in terms of content and method, and an examination of the way in which the



social studies may be integrated with the entire programme of studies appear to be urgent. If the teaching of Canadian history is to achieve the objectives which are to be found in the course of study, then it will be necessary to so organize content and method that it becomes possible for the student to realize and achieve the objectives. If the teaching of Canadian history is to play its part in the shaping of Canadian citizens, there appears to be a real need for reexamination of the course of study and of method.

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Born in Souris, Miss Dolmage finished her elementary and high school education in her home town and moved to Winnipeg for university and teacher training. She began her teaching experience in a one-room school in unorganized territory, followed by experience in a town school at Oak Lake.

From there she moved to the staff of the Winnipeg Schools and first launched her career of child guidance work when she took over a class of handicapped children.

Out of teaching hours, Miss Dolmage completed her Bachelor of Arts degree. With this accomplished she left for Evanston, Illinois, to complete her Master's Degree in Science of Education at Northwestern University.

On her return to Winnipeg, she started to work as psychologist for the Winnipeg School Board, in co-operation with the Chief Medical Inspector, Dr. Mary Crawford.

When the schools' medical inspection was taken over by the City Health Department, Miss Dolmage continued the psychological work. Together with the first psychiatric consultant for the schools, Dr. Gordon Stephens, they started to build up the Child Guidance Clinic.

As an enthusiastic supporter of the Home and School Association, Miss Dolmage has emphasized the importance of mental health as well as physical well-being of children, and thus carried this preventive program further into the community.

Miss Dolmage's first connection with Faculty of Education was in 1936 when she worked with Dr. D. S. Woods and Professor Harry Lowe to set up an Educational Child Guidance Clinic as a demonstration centre for the students in Education.

With a wealth of experience in human relations and a background of child guidance work, Miss Dolmage attended a UNESCO conference in the Netherlands this summer.

She was invited to be a group leader at the Seminar in Education for World Citizenship with reference to principles of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

Her group consisted of people from all corners of the world who were experienced in teaching children under twelve years of age.

This was her second appearance at a UNESCO conference. In 1948 she travelled to Prague to take part in a Seminar on "Early Childhood Education in Relation to International Understanding."

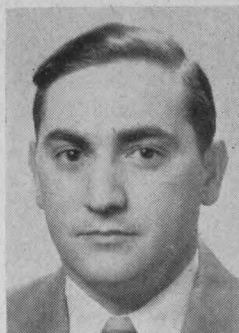


MR. A. A. HARRIS, Assistant Professor of Education, Brandon College, was born in Louisburg, N.S., and had his elementary and high school education at Glace Bay, N.S. He obtained his B.A. degree and B.Sc. degree from Acadia University and his B.Ed. and M.Ed. degrees from the University of Manitoba.

He taught Science and Mathematics in Glace Bay High School, Virden Collegiate and Brandon Collegiate. He was principal at Virden Collegiate from 1933 to 1938. From 1941 to 1946 he served in the R.C.A.F. as Gunnery Instructor, and from 1948 to 1952 was personnel counsellor in the Canadian Army.

Mr. Harris has been president, Manitoba Teachers' Society, and president, Brandon Red Cross. He is vice-president, Brandon Children's Aid Society and serves on the executive, Brandon Canadian Legion. He has also been alderman of the City of Brandon since 1947.

DR. GEORGE S. MACCIA was born in Clifton, New Jersey. His parents were immigrants from Naples, Italy, who settled in the United States before the turn of the century. Dr. Macchia attended local public schools and graduated from High School in 1938. He then enrolled in New Jersey State Teachers College at Paterson, New Jersey. During the Second World War he was employed in a non-ferrous foundry where he was responsible for the training of personnel and the operation of the finishing process.



Upon the diminishing of the industrial crisis in the United States, Dr. Macchia enrolled at Saint Louis University where he majored in chemistry, minored in mathematics and philosophy, and obtained his Bachelor of Science degree. Graduate study in chemistry became possible when he was awarded an Assistantship at the University of Kansas. Following these studies he was employed as a Research Chemist at the Wood Treating Chemicals Company at St. Louis, Missouri. While he was employed in this capacity, and in conjunction with Mrs. Macchia, Research Microbiologist with the same company, he devised commercial formulae for the preservation of wood and accelerated methods for testing the efficiency of various wood preservatives. Dr. Macchia then enrolled in the School of Education at the University of Missouri. After obtaining his Master of Education degree, he was employed with the Britt High School and Junior College at Britt, Iowa, as a science teacher. This teaching assignment provided experience in the teaching of science from the Junior High School through the Junior College. In the fall of 1950 Dr. Macchia enrolled in the University of Southern California at Los Angeles. He was employed as a Teaching Assistant in the teacher training program at the University. Upon completing his studies in the History and Philosophy of Education he was awarded the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in August 1952.

DR. J. E. M. YOUNG, Director of the Faculty of Education, Brandon College, was born in Hamiota, Manitoba, and received his elementary and high school education in various Manitoba towns.



He attended Brandon College and received his B.A. degree there in 1933. From there he went to the College of Education, University of Saskatchewan and subsequently was teacher and principal of schools in Manitoba and Saskatchewan.

He received his B.Ed. degree in 1940 and his M.Ed. degree in 1941 from the University of Saskatchewan.

He enlisted in the R.C.A.F. in 1941, trained as a pilot and completed an operational tour while based in the United Kingdom. On his return to Canada he was employed as an R.C.A.F. personnel counsellor for one and a half years. Following his release from the R.C.A.F. he was employed as veterans' counsellor at the University of Toronto from 1946 to 1949. During the period 1950-52 he was employed with the R.C.A.F. and Defence Research Board in personnel selection research at the Institute of Aviation Medicine, Toronto.

Dr. Young was enrolled in the School of Graduate Studies, University of Toronto from 1946 to 1952, where he majored in Educational Psychology and eventually received his Ph.D. in June 1952.

MRS. M. B. CANNON, Faculty of Education, Brandon College, was born and raised on a farm in the Brandon district. She attended Normal School in Brandon and Winnipeg and subsequently taught in Manitoba rural schools for seven years.

From 1922 until June 1952 she taught in Elementary, Junior High, and Senior High Schools of Brandon.

She graduated in Arts from the University of Manitoba in 1930 and received her M.A. degree in Education from the University of Manitoba in 1935.



# Unesco Seminar on Education 1952

GRACE DOLMAGE

Professor of Education

The purpose of this article is to describe the Unesco Seminar on Education for Living in a World Community with special reference to the principles of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

For the second time an international conference sponsored by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization enjoyed the warm hospitality of the Netherlands. In August of 1952 Woudschoten, an attractive conference building beautifully situated in the woods at Ziest near Utrecht was selected as the meeting place. It provided spacious accommodation for group working sessions and comfortable living quarters.

The reason for organizing this seminar can be found by examining documents published by United Nations and Unesco. The preamble to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights calls upon every individual and every organ of society to "strive by teaching and education to promote respect for these rights and freedoms, and by progressive measures national and international to secure their universal and effective recognition and observance. (1)

Since the adoption of the Declaration in Dec. 1948, one of Unesco's main tasks has been to assist in making it more widely known and understood. Thus resolution 2161 of the 1951 Program of Unesco authorized the Director General to promote educational methods designed to insure a living and active understanding of Human Rights and to this end to prepare for a seminar to be held in 1952 to study methods of teaching about Human Rights.

The General Conference of Unesco at its 6th session specified the nature of the Netherlands seminar by authorizing the Director General in resolution No. 1.332 "to organize a seminar for primary and secondary school teachers and for members of the staff of teacher training colleges of all levels on the development of active methods for education for living in a world community with special reference to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights." (2)

Unesco educational seminars are international working meetings attended by specialists and teachers selected by the governments of member states and conducted by a Director of Unesco's choice, for the practical study of certain problems. At these gatherings the participants pool their experiences and compare their ideas; seek the most effective methods and train themselves in their use; prepare material appropriate for the techniques thus involved; and draw up plans for their practical application and improvement. These seminars are also an experiment in international understanding.

1 Universal Declaration of Human Rights. United Nations. N.Y. 1949.

2 Statement on Methods in The Records of General Conference of the United Nations' Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization. 5th session. Resolution (Document 5 c. Resolution).



The extensive preparation by Unesco headquarters through research and careful planning had much to do with the successful conduct of the seminar. A Unesco document (Ed. 122 13 February 1952) which each participant received well in advance of the seminar outlining the program and suggesting topics for discussion was a valuable stimulation for individual preparation. Unesco had previously called together representatives of five International Teachers' Organizations (3) for consultation. They initiated research studies on the methods and experiences of teaching about human rights by teachers all over the world. The reports of these studies were available to the seminar as working papers.

The Netherlands seminar was directed by a person carefully selected by Unesco, Dr. C. E. Beeby Director of Education for New Zealand and at one time Director General of Unesco. The high quality of his leadership gave a sense of solidity to the seminar as well as providing the atmosphere of freedom conducive to good group relationships and effective study. He was given a staff of three group leaders — Prof. A. N. Basu (India) M. Louis Francois (France) and Miss Grace Dolmage (Canada). A unique feature of this seminar was the addition of two specialist advisors: Dr. Ernest Boesch (Switzerland) who gave valuable help and guidance in matters related to educational psychology and Dr. Andrew Martin (UK.) who is an expert in international law and provided valuable background information on the legal aspects of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

Other officials included Mr. D. V. Irvin, liaison-administrator from Unesco and Dr. C. Beekenkamp, chief Administrator appointed by the Dutch National Commission for Unesco. They were both assisted by an efficient secretariat. A core of professional interpreters and translators were present so that all business of the seminar was expressed in the official languages of French and English.

There was an enthusiastic response by the Member States and a total of sixty five people from 21 different countries were registered as official delegates. They represented all levels of educational endeavors — there were ten senior officials from ministries of education, seven inspectors of schools, twenty four secondary school teachers and four primary school teachers and nine members of staff of teacher training colleges. From these varied posts they brought rich resources in personal qualities and professional training and experiences.

Preceding the formal opening of the Seminar, the members of the staff met together for a planning conference, which proved most useful and in no small way assured the success of the seminar. These meetings were also attended by various officials from Unesco such as Dr. L. Elvin Assistant Director General and Dr. W. Wall, psychological Advisor to Unesco.

On August 4/52, the seminar was officially opened with a speech from the Director General of Unesco, Mr. Jaime Torres Bodet. Prof. F. J. Th. Rutten, Minister of Education Arts and Science of the Netherlands

- 3 1. International Federation of Secondary Teachers.
2. International Federation of Teachers' Associations.
3. New Education Fellowship.
4. World Federation of Teachers' Unions.
5. World Organization of the Teaching Profession.

Government replied to the speech of the Director General. Other Netherlands officials were present including Dr. Benner, directing secretary of the Netherlands Unesco National Commission. Following the opening ceremony, a reception and luncheon were held at Woudschoten.

Group discussion was considered the most useful method of conducting the work of the seminar. Only in small discussion groups can the participants have ample opportunities to exchange views and learn from each other. With the rich resources represented by individual delegates all possible methods were utilized whereby this interchange of experiences would take place.

Thus three major study groups were set up. Before arriving at Woudschoten, participants were required to select the group in which they desired to work. The character and objectives of these groups will be described later.

Formal lectures to the seminar as a whole was another method of conducting the proceedings. Dr. Martin's first two lectures on the background and political implications of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights were inspiring and formed the basis for the first topic to be discussed separately in three study groups. Later in the seminar the participants requested that both the advisers form small additional study groups where the areas of the main topic pertaining to their respective specialized fields could be more fully discussed and understood. Dr. Martin was able to give a more extensive treatment of the Declaration from his wide knowledge and study. Dr. Boesch also used these group meetings to show films on the social and emotional development of children and point up the implication for education for living in a world community.

Another stimulating experience in group participation was the panel of delegates on "Active Methods" as the most effective means for teaching about Human Rights in the classroom. The panel was enthusiastically received and from many indications, more of these programs might have been arranged.

It was through the study of the individual discussion groups though, that the major business of the seminar was accomplished. Because the theme of the seminar dealt with suitable methods for teaching about Human Rights the permanent structure of the study groups naturally followed an organization in line with the developmental stages of children. Group I was set up for participants interested in the education of boys and girls below the age of 12 years. Group II was for those interested in the education of children of 12 years to 15 years of age. Group III was for those participants interested in the educational methods suitable for children from 15 years to 18 years of age.

The Unesco Committee in preparation for the seminar suggested the following topics for consideration by the three groups.

(a) Is Education for World Citizenship and in the principles of Human Rights a matter of extending instruction in civics in the traditional sense or of using all subjects' studies and activities as a means of education for life as a citizen of the nation and world community? Are these two approaches incompatible?

(b) What understanding of the principles of World Citizenship and Human Rights can pupils be expected to have acquired by the time he or she leaves primary school? and secondary school?

(c) Can the Universal Declaration of Human Rights be used as the framework for education in the various aspects of citizenship — national and international?

(d) To what extent can the main themes of the Universal Declaration be used as centres of interest in school studies and activities eg.

The concept of universality.

The role of law.

The right to participation in government.

The right to freedom of speech and belief.

The right to education.

The right to social security.

The right to participation in cultural life of the community.

(e) Whatever the answers to preceding questions are, what links should be established at various stages of school life between education in world citizenship and the teaching of civics, history, geography, literature, languages, science, ethics, and the Arts? (4) Other suggestions on educational practices and teaching methods, teacher training, attitudes and preparation, teaching materials and aids, were set up in the same preparatory document.

When the staff gathered for preliminary planning each group leader was invited to put forth his own topics for discussion in their respective groups. It was recognized that the leaders were well aware of the proposed outline by Unesco but each had modified the topics or added others of his own. After agreement by the staff had been reached on each leader's choice of topics and plans for procedure, these outlines became working documents for the seminar. The outlines, of course were subject to change by the participants if they so desired.

Each group developed its own plan of work. They organized along democratic lines so that each participant had adequate opportunity for making his full contribution. It was decided that for each topic to be fully discussed one of the members should prepare a draft statement on a particular phase of the topic for the consideration of the group. It was customary for the leader to ask for a full comment by every person present in the light of his own experience and his country's attitude. The secretary kept a careful diary of all these comments which he handed to the author of the particular draft statement. The author revised the statement in the light of the expressed opinions which then became the official report of the group on that point. These reports later formed the formal report for Unesco. It was agreed that following each week's discussion, progress reports from each group would be presented to the seminar at weekly plenary sessions. In this way the different groups were kept informed of the other group's discussion as well as providing continuity for the whole business of the seminar. Some of the most valuable contributions by individual participants were made in these general assemblies.

(4) Ed./127. Unesco Paris. Feb. 13/52.

In a recent letter from Unesco House prepared by the documentary officials the group's achievement was summarized as follows:

"Group I had first of all to answer the basic question: Can children under twelve years of age benefit from teaching founded on the spirit and principles of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights? The members of the group agreed unanimously that they could, stressing the importance of education in the home and the usefulness of nursery schools and kindergartens as an introduction to community life. The group also advocated the organizations of experimental schools where various methods of education for living in a world community could be tried out — the results of these experiments to be shared with all other countries.

The members of Group II considered that a text so abstract as that of the declaration required adaptation for children of 12 to 15 years who are not yet accustomed to abstract thoughts. The group stressed the need to bear in mind the mental world of children of that age — a world in which the real and ideal are closely intermingled. The group discussed problems of method and the way in which Human Rights could be related to the various branches of study to further the common aim of providing young people with an ideal and preparing them to exercise, assert and be worthy of Human Rights.

Group III concentrated particularly on social political and religious conditions and the cultural environment in which adolescents grew up in the different countries. The group observed that some patterns of culture, peculiar to various countries may constitute obstacles to the exercise of certain Human Rights, recognized by the declaration. The position of young people from 15 to 18 years of age who are unable to enjoy full time schooling was also considered. It was unanimously recognized that the special needs of young people in this age group necessitated reform in the system for training teachers.

During the weeks of intensive discussion in the study groups, breaks were provided by a well planned social program made possible by the hospitality and generosity of the host country. Trips in comfortable buses to various places of historic and cultural significance gave a deep appreciation of the past struggles for just government and the unsurpassed achievement in the arts. The group were greatly honored by a Royal Invitation to an audience with Queen Julianna. This was considered the most distinguished honor which any country can offer its guests. They were charmed by evenings of delightful music rendered by outstanding national artists. The civic officials of the important cities in The Netherlands took time to receive them and offer them warm hospitality. They were shown the engineering feats of the Zeider Zee project in reclaiming land. Everywhere they were made conscious of an atmosphere of liberty and peace in this country which in itself is a lesson in national and international civic sense.

## **EVALUATION:**

It is doubtful if every person attending the seminar felt that it had achieved the purposes which had been anticipated. Some were likely disappointed while others revised their objectives during the course of



the conference and still others were aroused and inspired by the challenge they had received through lectures and discussions. Among the participants, many stood out as fine examples of international citizens. In all groups there were individuals who made outstanding contributions through their preparation of draft statement papers. The hope of producing materials for teacher's use in classrooms was not realized. It was felt by some that the resources for professionally prepared materials were not always present in a seminar such as this. There were however extensive suggestions for developing materials in the individual group reports which at some time might be used as the basis in the preparation of teaching materials. In the writer's opinion the one aspect of the seminar which was an outstanding and reassuring result was the personal responsibility assumed by delegates for furthering the understanding and support of the Declaration of Human Rights in their own countries. As teachers in classrooms and members of their communities they are determined to teach and exemplify the spirit and the principles laid out in the Declaration.

The importance of the place of the teacher in relation to the Declaration of Human Rights is set forth by Boris Ford in his publication "A Teacher's Guide". (5)

Any teacher reading through the Universal Declaration of Human Rights would quickly discover that this document pays particular attention to education and that in it the teacher is treated, by implication as a person of special importance.

Article 26 of the Declaration reads as follows:

1. Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all, on the basis of merit.

2. Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations for the maintenance of peace.

3. Parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children.

It would seem then that in organizing international conferences for teachers from all over the world, in which mutual exchange of ideas, experiences and studies is carried out and where good feelings and respect for each other and the countries they represent are engendered, Unesco has accomplished much in stimulating and promoting education for living in a World Community of Nations.

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# The Attitude of English-Speaking Canadian High School Seniors Towards Americans

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A basic assumption of this study was that the educational agencies of Canada and the United States have a definite responsibility toward fostering in the present and succeeding generations of school children a spirit of tolerance, goodwill, and mutual understanding between the peoples of the two countries. It was also believed that any programme designed to cultivate tolerance and understanding must be based upon a knowledge of the favorableness or unfavorableness of the attitude which at present characterizes Canadian-American relationships. Since no accurate and objective assessment of this attitude was available, the study was designed to discover what the attitude is, how it is affected by certain possible sources of variation, and what factors have been influential in its development. The study is restricted to an examination of the attitude of English-speaking Canadian school pupils.

Specifically, the main purpose of the study was to provide answers to the following questions:

1. What is the attitude, in terms of favorableness or unfavorableness, of Canadian high school seniors toward Americans?
2. Is there a significant variation in the favorableness or unfavorableness of the attitude of Canadian high school seniors toward Americans with respect to:
  - (a) The province in which the pupils live?
  - (b) The sex of the pupils?
  - (c) The type of community (rural or urban) in which the pupils live?
  - (d) The scholastic or academic rating of the pupils?
  - (e) The extent of the personal contact with Americans which the pupils have had?
3. Are there significant interaction effects among the variables listed in Question 2?
4. What is the relative importance of such factors as visits to the United States, contacts with American visitors and tourists, opinions of friends and relatives, books, newspapers, magazines, radio, and movies, in contributing to the development of the Canadian high school senior pupil's attitude toward Americans?

In order to answer these questions, some means of measuring the attitude had to be provided. Accordingly, an "Attitude toward Americans" scale of the summated-ratings type was prepared. This scale contained three major divisions:

1. A questionnaire designed to provide information regarding the pupil's name, address, school, grade, sex, and extent of his contact with Americans.

2. The attitude scale proper which consisted of thirty statements expressing either a favorable or unfavorable attitude toward Americans. (The thirty statements were chosen following an item analysis of the ninety-four statements of a preliminary scale which had been administered to 319 Grade XI and Grade XII pupils from eleven high schools in six Canadian provinces.)
3. A list of twelve factors from which the pupil was to select the four which he felt had contributed most to the formation of his attitude toward Americans.

The attitude scale was administered to pupils attending Grade XI or Grade XII in numerous village, town, and city high schools in every Canadian province. A total of 7,607 completed scales from 315 schools was returned and scored. A quantitative measure of each pupil's degree of contact with Americans was obtained from the questionnaire part of the scale, and a rating of his academic proficiency was available from an above average, average, or below average assessment provided by his classroom teacher.

The 7,607 attitude scale scores were separated into 360 subclasses, each of which contained the scores of pupils who were similar in respect to home province, sex, locality, academic rating, and degree of contact with Americans. In order to determine if there were significant differences among the mean attitude scale scores of groups of pupils classified according to the above five observational sources of variation, and at the same time to determine if significant inter-action effects were present, the analysis of variance technique was employed. As a result of the analysis, it was possible to provide answers to the questions asked in the statement of the purpose of the study.

1. The distribution of attitude scale scores was approximately normal and covered the entire range from extremely favorable to extremely unfavorable. Thus, the majority of Canadian high school seniors had no definite or pronounced attitude toward Americans but tended to be neutral or undecided. Smaller numbers had an attitude which was somewhat favorable or somewhat unfavorable, while comparatively few viewed Americans with extreme favor or disfavor.
2. From the analysis of variance, the following variations in attitude were found:
  - (a) The provincial factor proved to be a significant source of variation. Mean attitude scale scores indicated that the most favorable attitude toward Americans was held by pupils of Newfoundland, followed (in order) by those from New Brunswick, Alberta, Saskatchewan, Quebec, Manitoba, Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia, British Columbia, and Ontario.
  - (b) The sex factor produced a significant difference in mean attitude scale scores. Girls were more favorably disposed toward Americans than were boys.
  - (c) The locality factor also produced a significant difference. Rural pupils had a more favorable attitude toward Americans than did urban pupils.



- (d) Academic rating proved to be a significant source of variation. The most favorable attitude toward Americans was expressed by pupils rated as below average, followed by those rated as average and above average respectively.
  - (e) No significant differences were found from a comparison of mean attitude scale scores when pupils were grouped according to degree of contact with Americans. (This finding must be qualified when the comparison is made between a group of students who have had an opportunity for an organized type of contact with Americans in an educational setting — the members of the Trans-Lake Study Group of Northern Vocational School, Toronto, and similar pupils who have not had this opportunity. The fact that the Trans-Lake pupils evidenced a significantly more favorable attitude toward Americans, would indicate that organizations which are specifically designed to develop actual contacts between groups of Canadian and American high school pupils with a view to increasing their knowledge and understanding of each other, are apparently successful in fostering the development of favorable attitudes.)
3. Only three interaction effects were found to be significant. These were: province and sex, province and degree of contact, and sex and locality.
  4. The relative importance of the various factors stated by pupils as being influential in forming their attitude toward Americans was determined by counting the number of times each factor had been marked as being important. The results indicated that the pupils felt the secondary sources — which included books, magazines, newspapers, radio, and movies — had contributed most to the formation of their attitudes. Actual contact with Americans and the influence of family and friends contributed about equally, but were considerably less important than the secondary sources. School sources — textbooks and classroom discussions — were rated as being quite uninfluential as factors in the development of attitude toward Americans.

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## Studies Needed

J. M. BROWN

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There is a great deal of cynicism these days about educational research. Why pursue the frontiers further while the findings of so many studies lie undisturbed on library shelves? Why not declare a moratorium on research until practice in the classroom catches up with what has already been revealed? Surely our efforts ought to be directed at a better application of what is now known rather than at the discovery of more information! Thus runs the argument.

Admittedly, there is a serious lag in practice. Would that the findings in the field of child growth and development might somehow or other be miraculously incorporated into the work of all our teachers. Would that they could quickly acquire insight into the characteristics of a democratic classroom as revealed by Kurt Lewin and his associates. Would that all teachers applied in their daily contacts with children the accumulated knowledge of the laws of learning. Would that individual differences were fully recognized and provided for. The application of research findings to all aspects of the educative process needs more attention. Perhaps there is need for a study to determine why the results of research have not made a greater impact on curriculum planning, instruction and administration.

Lest we despair, consider for a moment the tremendous effect of research on the content and methodology of our basic reading programme. Consider, too, the effect of research in arithmetic, spelling and other elementary school subjects. In all these subjects, however, instructional materials and the theory of method have been affected to a greater extent than have actual classroom procedures.

Application of the findings of research must have constant attention. Fresh research must be pursued. Following are some of the problems, large and small, that seem to require further study:

1. How can the findings of research be more effectively disseminated? Perhaps it is necessary to do some sifting. There are too many insignificant findings which tend to obscure those of greater moment.

2. How can a modern classroom be interpreted to the public? What is now being done? What avenues are available?

3. How democratic are our schools? Where do our schools stand on the scale of democracy vs autocracy? There is urgent need for a clear definition of the characteristics, processes and activities of a democratic classroom.

4. To what extent do our classroom procedures respect the basic principles of mental hygiene? Do pupils participate or listen? To what extent are social, psychological and emotional needs being met?

5. A survey of the conduct and content of staff meetings would be valuable. To what extent are staff meetings devoted to the improvement of instruction? To what extent do they serve only routine administrative purposes?

6. Why do teachers leave the profession — marriage, increased remuneration, retirement, failure, etc?

7. There is need for a survey of library techniques in a cross-section of schools of various sizes.

8. What are the trends in content and purpose of Departmental examinations in Grade XI? A survey of examination papers set during the past twenty-five or thirty years might be undertaken in several subjects.

9. To what extent do present examinations test for the alleged objectives as stated in the Programmes of Study?

10. A study of the geographical and historical concepts in the present Elementary, Junior High School and Senior High School programmes

would be worthwhile. A separate study might be carried out to determine pupils' knowledge of map-reading concepts.

11. There is some agitation for a uniform system of education in Canada. It would be interesting to find out the extent to which basic texts are now used in common by two or more provinces.

12. Attempts have been made to survey the out-of-school activities of Junior and Senior High School pupils. This is still a fruitful field of study. To what extent do these activities affect school achievement?

13. Few, if any, studies have been made in Manitoba, of local community resources which are useful instructional aids.

14. What are the possibilities for the exchange of instructional materials between schools in Manitoba or between the schools of other provinces and states?

15. What is the status of poetry appreciation in our elementary schools?

16. Are there any significant differences in spelling achievement between classrooms using the old and revised Canadian spellers?

17. What is the status of oral instruction in present day classrooms? What is its nature?

18. What techniques are employed by teachers in the use of the black-board as an instructional tool? What are its potentialities?

19. What instructional materials are used in representative classrooms for teaching music, art, social studies, arithmetic, etc? To what extent does the text book predominate?

20. What are the crucial factors that determine competence in teaching?

21. What are the traits of a democratic citizen? What teaching techniques are necessary for the development of democratic behavior in pupils?

"We constantly strive for the truth and after finding what we believe to be the truth, we must continue to re-examine our data and seek new sources and new data in order to be aware of important changes."

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## Methods of Teacher Training

In a recent enquiry conducted by the C.E.A. at 26 different Training Institutions in Canada the following statements were supported by overwhelming majorities:-

1. Students should be trained to develop lessons under such headings as:  
(a) aim (b) introduction (c) presentation (d) recapitulation  
(e) application.
2. Students should be trained in the teaching of a variety of lessons such as (a) developmental (b) appreciation (c) demonstration (d) drill, review, etc.
3. The **lesson** is still considered as the basic unit of instruction.
4. Students should be required to submit detailed lesson plans to their tutors.

5. Students should be required to submit observation reports to their tutors.
6. The old type enterprise method is less popular than it was ten years ago.
7. The term **unit of study** means subject matter **and the learning activities** associated with it.
8. There seems to be a tendency to turn away from incidental teaching and return to drill methods.
9. There seems to be a growing desire on the part of parents and trustees for a greater emphasis on skill subjects.
10. Educational psychology is receiving far more attention in teacher training than it did ten years ago.
11. Educational history is receiving much less attention in teacher training than it did ten years ago.
12. Students should be taught to teach formal lessons in handwriting.
13. More emphasis is being placed upon formal grammar than there was ten years ago.
14. Canadian education leans too heavily upon American books, American thinking, and American practices in education.

Replies to the following statements were about evenly balanced so far as affirmative and negative answers were concerned:-

- A. The term **correlation** has been replaced by the term integration.
- B. There is a tendency to shift away from social studies and return to the teaching of history and geography as separate subjects.

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# "That Term Paper"

ELEANOR BOYCE

Inspector of Schools

Enthusiasm for off-campus courses in Education has increased to an amazing degree, and a great deal of that enthusiasm is due, paradoxically, to the much-maligned term paper.

No one wishes to imply that candidates are eagerly following courses in order to enjoy the privilege of writing term papers. It is true, however, that the term paper has been responsible for higher interest in, and greater benefits from education courses, and indirectly responsible for increased enrollment in the classes.

In the past, teachers admitted that they took courses in order to improve their professional status, and, incidentally, to put themselves into a higher income bracket. For term papers they were at first satisfied to present a "mosaic of sentences" culled from recommended professional reading. They soon discovered, however, that their improved professional background helped them to cope more efficiently with their daily classroom problems. With greater assurance they diagnosed their teaching troubles and set about to solve them. Their instructors in education encouraged these teachers to direct their professional reading toward the solution of their own problems, to experiment in their own classrooms and to report their findings in a term-paper.

The problems have not been unique and the results reported are not world-shaking, but supervisors and inspectors report a new enthusiasm among pupils and teachers alike as the "Science of Education" goes to work in a classroom.

Term papers report on any problem such as a group of grade nine boys who will not read, or a grade four class who cannot understand what they do read, or grade eleven students who cannot make notes, or some behaviour problems in grade five, or failures in grade two, etc. The term papers reveal how the teacher diagnosed her difficulty, what recommended approach she used to deal with it, and how she measured the results. Thus the perennial nuisance that the teacher formerly accepted in all charity, put up with for an allotted span, then passed on to a fellow sufferer, now appears as Case B in a term paper.

Guided professional reading has enabled teachers to interpret the needs of their pupils and consciously, or otherwise, teachers are revealing a curiosity about new ideas. Courses in education have made them unwilling to conform to old customs merely because they have been accepted. Term papers are encouraging them to find out **why** — hence the enthusiasm in classes and the increased demand for off-campus courses in Education.

# Motivation

N. V. SCARFE

Dean of Education.

During the last year several teachers in Winnipeg cooperated in a small investigation, the results of which formed the basis for some thoughtful and stimulating course or term papers. The purpose of the investigation is best expressed in one of the statements on which children were asked to express their views.

"You will see that we are trying to find out whether students are likely to work harder at things that are merely interesting or at things which are just useful.

Some people say that teachers ought to concentrate only on making their lessons more interesting regardless of their usefulness, others say that teachers should teach only those things which children think are worth knowing regardless of initial interest. What is your opinion on this problem?"

This general statement was preceded by various other types of questions relevant to this topic and followed by a series of statements to which students were asked to express their agreement or disagreement. Six hundred students were tested, one hundred each from grades VII to XII. Some of the raw results are here presented, not for the purpose of suggesting any conclusions but simply for the interest of teachers and to stimulate others to pursue research. Both Archie McNicholl and Lorne MacFarland got a great deal of fun from the work. Moreover, it renewed their enthusiasm for teaching.

The results of student comment on the above statement are given as raw scores below:-

TABLE I

	INTEREST			USEFULNESS			BOTH NECESSARY			NO ANSWER		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Grade VII.....	8	6	14	19	18	37	11	13	24	12	13	25
Grade VIII.....	14	16	30	24	20	44	11	9	20	1	5	6
Grade IX.....	7	16	23	28	20	48	5	13	18	10	1	11
Junior High Totals.....	29	38	67	71	58	129	27	35	62	23	19	42
Grade X.....	10	10	20	22	17	39	13	23	36	5	0	5
Grade XII.....	16	17	33	19	23	42	11	10	21	4	0	4
Grade XI.....	11	18	29	24	23	47	4	7	11	11	2	13
Senior High Totals.....	37	45	82	65	63	128	28	40	68	20	2	22
Grand Totals.....	66	83	149	136	121	257	55	75	130	43	21	64

It will be interesting to compare these results with the figures of student reaction to more definite statements. Very slight but very significant differences of wording have been deliberately introduced. Particular notice should be drawn to the difference between "wishing to learn" and "willingness to work hard". Again it is stressed that no world shattering conclusions are to be drawn. On the other hand it is felt that the results are of "interest if not useful"!!

"1. Which of these three statements do you agree with most?

(Check the one you agree with most).

- a. I want to learn things most when they seem likely to be useful to me . . . . .
- b. I want to learn things most when they are interesting to me . . . . .
- c. I want to learn things most when they are both interesting and useful . . . . ."

TABLE II

Results of Question 1

Interest — Usefulness — Combination of Both  
as Motivation Forces in **Learning**

	INTEREST			USEFULNESS			COMBINATION OF BOTH		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Grade VII.....	5	4	9	8	3	11	37	43	80
Grade VIII.....	2	4	6	0	1	1	48	45	93
Grade IX.....	3	4	7	5	2	7	42	44	86
Junior High Totals.....	10	12	22	13	6	19	127	132	259
Grade X.....	3	2	5	7	1	8	40	47	87
Grade XI.....	3	3	6	2	5	7	45	42	87
Grade XII.....	2	5	7	5	1	6	43	44	87
Senior High Totals.....	8	10	18	14	7	21	128	133	261
Grand Totals.....	18	22	40	27	13	40	225	265	520

"2. Which of these three statements do you agree with most?

- a. I am always willing to work hard at things that interest me a great deal . . . . .
- b. I am always willing to work hard at things which are likely to be useful to me . . . . .
- c. I am always willing to work hard at things which are both interesting and useful . . . . .

TABLE III

Results of Question 2

Interest — Usefulness — Combination of Both  
as Motivation Forces in **Working**

	INTEREST			USEFULNESS			COMBINATION OF BOTH		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Grade VII.....	15	9	24	1	5	6	34	36	70
Grade VIII.....	9	15	24	0	2	2	41	33	74
Grade IX.....	10	4	14	6	1	7	34	45	79
Junior High Totals.....	34	28	62	7	8	15	109	114	223
Grade X.....	5	6	11	12	2	14	33	42	75
Grade XI.....	10	5	15	1	6	7	39	39	78
Grade XII.....	9	11	20	5	2	7	36	37	73
Senior High Totals.....	24	22	46	18	10	28	108	118	226
Grand Totals.....	58	50	108	25	18	43	217	232	449

"3. With which of the following statements do you agree (✓) and with which do you disagree (x)?

- a. Students are always willing to try to learn things that are interesting to them even if there seems at first sight little use in knowing these things . . . . .

- b. Students are always willing to try to learn things that are likely to be useful even if at first sight they may not seem interesting . . . . .
- c. Teachers should always choose useful things to teach but should teach them in an interesting way . . . . .
- d. It is not necessary that students should always be interested in a topic before they study it. It is sufficient if the topic seems worth while to begin with and later proves to be interesting also . . . . .
- e. Subject-matter is not interesting or uninteresting by itself. What makes it interesting is the way in which it is studied and taught . . . . .
- f. If a topic can be shown to be useful and worth while studying it is likely to attract considerable interest from the student . . . . .
- g. Students are more likely to be interested in new things about which they know little, than about things of which they already know a great deal . . . . ."

Over 2/3 (68%) of all students agreed with statement (a), on the other hand 63.5% disagreed with statement (b). An overwhelming majority (93%) agreed with statement (c) while 67 percent agreed with statement (d). Over 82% agreed with statement (e). Statement (f) had the adherence of over 81% of the student body and statement (g) secured 71% of the favourable votes.

If any conclusions are valid from this work it is that the content of school should be useful (not merely utilitarian) and that methods of teaching in the wide sense, not in the narrow sense of "techniques," should be the means of stimulating interest. Moreover, usefulness is the primary motive for starting work whereas interest is the motive power that keeps work going. Interest is more important as an end product in teaching than as a "starting pistol".

There is also a difference in response between younger and older children and between boys and girls.

Is this research interesting? Could it be useful?

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## Reviews of M. Ed. Theses

H. H. GUEST

Purpose, Methods and Main Findings of Counseling in the Winnipeg Junior High Schools, September, 1951.

Boys and girls of junior high school age face many problems and many new situations, and they feel many uncertainties; but they do not like the deluge of adult advice that often falls on them. The purpose of this thesis is to discover whether a counseling service in junior high schools can help these boys and girls, and if so what form it should take. More specifically, the thesis sets out to determine what place counseling



has in junior high school, to examine and clarify some counseling techniques such as interviewing, making case studies and co-operating with other agencies, to consider the characteristics of a good counselor, to assess the counseling now being given at this level in Winnipeg, and to suggest an adequate program.

Three methods have been used. The first has been a study of the views of various authors on the subject. The second has been by questionnaires, directed both to teachers and to pupils. The third has been by interviews to discover at first hand the facts about other agencies dealing with boys and girls, and the experiences and opinions of a few representative parents, teachers and principals. In the proposed program of counseling for Winnipeg junior high schools, which climaxes the thesis, an attempt has been made to combine the ideas secured in these three ways, using common sense and some insight from experience.

The study showed that the efforts of the various agencies dealing with children are not well coordinated, although their officers are eager to co-operate. Some parents and many teachers and principals are distrustful of the high sounding phrases sometimes used, although they are not obstructing guidance activities in school. Hardly any of the teachers responsible have any special training for guidance or counseling, and almost no time is scheduled for counseling — a total of 27 hours per week, altogether, for the hundreds of junior high classes in the city. Record systems are being developed but facilities for interviewing are often lacking. In the last three years, group guidance has become common and an integrated program has been developed. The same cannot be said for counseling.

But most pupils want a counseling service. Of 325 asked, 77% said counseling would help them personally. One wanted assistance with "difficulties in studies and choosing a suitable course for high school"; another would discuss "fighting at home;" and a third cheerfully said, "It would be nice to talk about things you do not understand such as life etc." The topics spontaneously suggested were, in order of frequency: school work, personal questions, boy-girl relationships, home and family affairs, jobs and careers, course selection, recreational planning, manners and appearance, and adjustment to teachers. It seems clear that a suitable program should be implemented to meet the needs here so clearly expressed.

H. L. S.

#### RUDOLPH MARTIN ARNOLD

An Analysis of the Accident Records and Driving Characteristics of Youthful Manitoba Motor Vehicle Operators With the View to Investigating the Need for and Problems of Driver Education in the Manitoba High School Curriculum. Faculty of Education, University of Manitoba. M. Ed. Thesis. April, 1952. Pp. viii/252.

This study was undertaken to define the role of the secondary school in a highway safety program. Specifically, the study attempted to answer two questions: (1) Does a need exist for the extension of traffic education to the Manitoba secondary school level, and (2) What are the basic factors influencing the establishment and organization of a driver education course in Winnipeg High Schools?

Four main steps were followed in seeking the solution to the aforementioned problem. First, an analysis and interpretation of the present status of safety education was done, involving some five hundred publications in all. Second, a questionnaire-survey of present safety education in Canada was made. Third, licensed high school students were tested to detect differences in knowledge of road rules, attitude to driving, psychophysical capacities, and ability to drive safely an automobile in traffic. Four, statistical techniques were used to assist in interpretation of the data.

The study was designed to deal with seven major hypotheses incorporated in the following questions: (1) How has the growth of motor vehicle usage influenced the highway accident problem? (2) Has a basic concept been applied in accident prevention programs? (3) What do accident statistics reveal about the extent of the accident problem? What implications have they for the secondary school? (4) What is the normative status of driver education in the United States and Canada? (5) Is driver education in harmony with the purposes and functions of the high school? (6) What fundamental problems are likely to be encountered in introducing driver education in the high schools? (7) Do experimental findings involving the driver testing of student operators suggest the need for systematic instruction and guidance?

The most significant findings of the study point out that there is a need for driver education in the light of the facts that "half of the student population now attending junior high school will be driving upon graduation from senior levels; that the elementary grades have established the precedent for school participation in safety activities; that the records of youthful drivers indicated an acute need for concentrating the major efforts of any safety education program in areas accessible to them, and, that where students have been trained there has been reduced accident involvement.

Arnold concludes his study by suggesting that driver education could best be integrated with the existing Health and Physical Education course; that initially, driver education could be best provided outside regular school hours; and, that professional driving schools could be employed until such times as the school is prepared to provide adequate instruction in driver training.

J. K.

#### ARCHIBALD CAMERON McMURCHY

##### Study of a Winnipeg Elementary School (Pinkham)

The study presents in considerable detail a history of the Pinkham elementary school during the period 1883 to 1951, more especially that of the last 25 years. It involves such matters as building and equipment, economic and population changes, the progress of the pupil population through the grades, the school staff and the influence of supervision upon school progress. The study portrays the operation of two related principles. 1. The detrimental effect upon school progress of a declining economic status in the population of a school community joined with that of a marked change in the racial homogeneity of the homes of its

children. 2. It illustrates in no uncertain manner what can be accomplished in such a situation by staffing the school with interested and capable teachers and through persistent supervisory attention and assistance.

Many changes of interest are recorded relating to building and equipment such as class size and school costs. In 1896 heating was provided by a "syndicate stove" in each classroom. In 1903 a 12-room school, 3 floors, 4 rooms to a floor was erected at an approximate cost of \$40.00 per room. A minute recorded in the annual report of the Building Committee, dated Dec. 29, 1903, p. 40 reads as follows:

"In the building, as in the Carlton, each of the offices, front and rear, are warmed directly from the furnaces through flues in brick partition walls, instead of from classrooms as in former buildings. The school buildings erected in 1903 fully sustain the reputation enjoyed by the city with respect to its schools".

It is of some importance to note the change in class size — Average per room as at:

Sept. 1885 - 54.5	April 1890 - 62.00
June 1894 - 86.5	Sept. 1898 - 52.5
June 1903 - 58.5	June 1917 - 48.36
June 1928 - 46.33	June 1937 - 37.09
June 1938 - 34.53	June 1943 - 33.25
June 1948 - 31.20	June 1951 - 30.30

The entire thesis presents a graphic story of change in public knowledge and attitude toward the problems of the elementary school in a modern city system. Further, it demonstrates how concentration upon an acute educational situation may foster progress.

D. S. W.

SISTER MARGARET MALLOY

A History of St. Mary's Academy and Its Times

The writer investigated every available source of data, primary and secondary, and devoted much time to interviewing older folk some of whose memories and experiences reach back to the very early years of the institution. There existed in minutes and chronicles adequate data, human as well as factual, to unravel a continuous story from the very beginning.

The method of presentation is patterned after the style of Healy's **Women of Red River**. Being largely a girls' and young ladies' school, the matter lends itself to like treatment. So beautifully is the story unravelled, even in its factual details, that one may best do it justice by brief quotations therefrom.

"The story began one spring morning in 1869 when the Archbishop of St. Boniface, most Rev. Alexander Tache O.M.I., called in sister Witham, the Superior of the Sisters of Charity . . . . The meeting took place in

what is now the Grey Nun's Provincial House on Tache Avenue in St. Boniface, probably near the entrance in one of the two small rooms in which visitors are received even to this day . . . . . To sister Witham's consternation, Archbishop Tache told her that he had come to ask for two sisters to open a school across the river in what was usually called "Fort Garry", but which was beginning to be known as "Winnipeg".

"Sister St. Theresa and sister Macdougall opened St. Mary's Academy, May 1, 1869. The Grey Nun's records mention that almost all the children in Winnipeg attended the school . . . . . A school inspector, Mr. H. Royal, in his report in 1871 states that at that time, there were thirty-four pupils, nineteen boys and fifteen girls".

The sisters of the Holy Name, a trained teaching order, succeeded the Grey Nun's in 1874. The description of their journey from Montreal, its hardships and its novel situations, the two-wheel cart as a bus at Duluth, first meeting with groups of Indians, Father Lacombe's versatility, a rainy day on the Red River in a leaky old river boat:

"It rained all Thursday: the boat seemed hardly to move; there were so many curves in the Red river; rocks protruded dangerously out of the water; there was nothing to see but the monotony of the plain, the muddy water and the rain. Friday the same monotony, the same slow speed, the same muddy water, the same rain".

A pupil of 1874 tells her story of the school—

"School was more severe than it is today and, indeed, we were not any the worse of it . . . . . Nearly everyone in St. Mary's Academy took piano lessons. On Sunday afternoons we had sewing. We all learned to sew good sensible things first, after that petit-point and knitting . . . . . There was no fooling, we were at school to learn. Poor handwriting was not tolerated. I suppose we learned what the young people do today, but we had French extra".

D. S. W.

#### BERTHA A. VANDERSTEEN

##### A Study of the Reading Problems of Two Grade Seven Classes in a Winnipeg School

This thesis reports on the efforts to improve silent reading in two Grade VII, junior high school classes, in the same Winnipeg city school and on the attempts to record and evaluate the effect of certain remedial measures employed. The method involved an analysis of each pupil's reading habits, further diagnosis to locate specific reading disabilities, the application of remedial techniques, testing for achievement and detailed examination of the results attained.

Both classes, under direction of the same teacher were equated as to intelligence, age, sex, economic background and silent reading attainment. Not only were both classes and all students in each from homes in a low economic area but, as well, were representative of eleven racial and language groups, each factor presenting an instructional problem of some concern and one worthy of intensive study. A preliminary test



of these Grade VII pupils gave a reading range for Class A of: Grade V-15 pupils, Grade VI-8, Grade VII-5, Grade IX-3 and Grade X-1; for Class B: Grade V-15, Grade VI-5, Grade VII-10 and Grade VIII-2. Rate of reading and oral reading tests revealed variation similar in extent to comprehension. A study of eye movements revealed the presence of great variation in fixations and regressions.

Remedial measures included a careful check and correction of eyesight, discussion with individuals as to the correction of defects in reading, the use of selected paragraphs from the work book and greater opportunity for free reading on level with pupil interest and ability. Emphasis was placed upon accuracy in reading and training was provided in the use of the dictionary.

Final reading tests indicate that 14 of the 27 pupils in class A and 19 of the 27 in class B improved their median grade scores, in class A from two months to two years and one month, and in class B from two months to three years and two months. The writer does not attempt to attribute the improvement to any particular approach but rather to the over-all concentration upon the problem. The numbers of pupils involved were too great to give adequate attention to the very poor readers, otherwise the number showing significant improvement could have been increased.

D. S. W.

#### WALLACE HENRY McINTYRE

##### A Comparative Study of Collegiate and Department of Education Examination Marks

This study undertakes to determine whether a comparatively close, or a very wide discrepancy exists between school marks and those of the annual June examinations of the Provincial Department of Education. Both sets of examination marks were studied for the years 1949, 1950 and 1951 from a sampling of collegiate institutes and collegiate departments representatives of city and large town school districts for the entire province. Complete examination data were available from the records of all schools included. Results are analyzed for Literature, Composition, History, Geometry, Algebra, Chemistry, Physics, French and Latin.

Some general findings serve to establish the relationship between school and provincial pupil ratings over the last three-year period, 1949 to 1951 inclusive and would suggest that while serious discrepancy is

not in the evidence, nevertheless, significant variation exists. Some of the findings are as follows:

1. Variation exists from school to school and within subjects.
2. As compared with provincial marks, those assigned by teachers as a result of school tests are a fair indication of the progress and achievement of pupils in the individual schools. There exist a minimum of significant variations from this finding.
3. There is less variation from the provincial standard in the subjective than in the objective subjects.
4. The trend in any subject towards underscoring or overscoring in a collegiate is due to the standard set by the individual teacher rather than to that set by the provincial examination.
5. Occasionally an examination paper, in one or more subjects, and which is not in line with the requirements of the Programme of Studies, has formed a part of the June Examination.

D.S.W.

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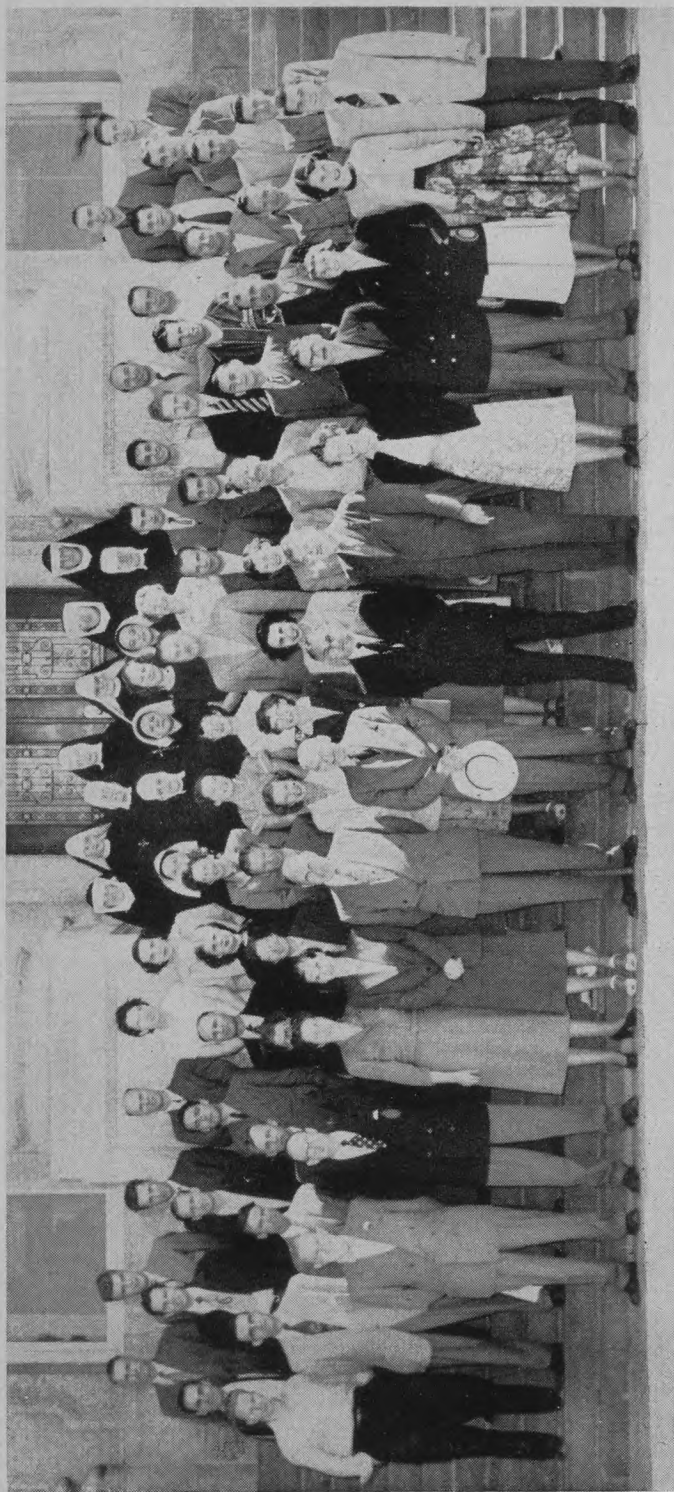
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**Courses Offered by the Faculty of Education 1952-3****SUMMER 1952****Total Enrolment at All Courses — 165****Fort Garry Campus**

- 202 Child Development — Professor H. L. Stein
- 206 Educational Statistics — Professor H. L. Stein
- 207 Administration of Rural Schools — Dean D. S. Woods
- 210 Teaching of Reading — Principal F. C. Biehl
- 213 Teaching of English — Professor J. Katz
- 217 Teaching of French — Professor M. Richard
- 701 Educational Research — Dean D. S. Woods
- 712 Curriculum Organization — Professor J. Katz

**AUTUMN 1952****Total Enrolment at All Courses — 338****Winnipeg**

- 209 Remedial Education — Miss G. Walby
- 210 Teaching of Reading — Dr. E. Boyce
- 219 Physical Education — Professor F. Kennedy
- 226 Teaching of Art — Professor J. Harland
- 227 Teaching of Music — Professor R. Gibson
- 706 Organization of Secondary Education — Dr. W. C. Lorimer
- 717 Teaching of Physical Science — Professor G. Maccia

**Brandon**

- 221 Teaching of Geography — Dean N. V. Scarfe

**Dauphin**

- 213 Teaching of English — Professor J. Katz

**Winkler**

- 203 Mental Health — Professor G. Dolmage

**Carman**

- 234 Documentary Research — Dean D. S. Woods

**Flin Flon**

- 704 History of Canadian Education — Dean D. S. Woods

**Portage la Prairie**

- 233 Principles of Education — Mr. W. Wall

**Neepawa**

- 710 Mental and Achievement Tests — Professor H. L. Stein

**WINTER 1953****Total Enrolment — 100****Winnipeg**

- 228 School in the Social Order — Professor G. Dolmage
- 230 Audio-Visual Aids — Dean N. V. Scarfe
- 231 Organization of Elementary Curriculum — Professor J. Katz
- 721 Teaching of Biology — Professor G. Maccia
- 724 Psychology of Adolescence — Dr. H. L. Stein

# Courses to be Offered in 1953-4

## SUMMER 1953

### University Campus

- 201 Advanced Educational Psychology — Professor H. L. Stein
- 214 Teaching of History — Professor J. Katz
- 216 Teaching of Science — Professor G. Maccia
- 221 Teaching of Geography — Dean N. V. Scarfe
- 234 Documentary Research — Professor J. Katz
- 702 Philosophy of Education — Dean N. V. Scarfe
- 703 History of Education — Professor G. Maccia
- 710 Mental and Achievement Tests — Professor H. L. Stein
- 722 Research in Primary School Methods — Professor G. Dolmage
- 723 Educational Sociology — Professor G. Dolmage

## AUTUMN 1953

### Weekday Evenings

#### Winnipeg

- 206 Educational Statistics
- 218 Teaching of Home Economics
- 219 Physical Education (women only)
- 236 Teaching of Industrial Arts
- 705 Advanced Comparative Education

#### Saturdays

- 211 Children's Literature

#### Brandon

- 702 Philosophy of Education

#### Dauphin

- 233 Principles of Education

#### Winkler

- 213 Teaching of English

#### Flin Flon

- 203 Mental Health

#### Portage la Prairie

- 221 Teaching of Geography

#### Neepawa

- 703 History of Education

#### Steinbach

- 234 Documentary Research

## WINTER 1954

### Weekday Evenings

#### Winnipeg

- 215 Teaching of Mathematics
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